ANSWER

To the Reverend

Mr. WARBURTON's

Divine Legation of MOSES,

IN THREE PARTS.

In which are confidered,

- I. Some of his Quotations from the ANCIENTS.
- II. His Manner of Reasoning: And,
- III. His Notion of Moral Obligation.

By THOMAS BOTT, A.M.

Rector of Spixworth, Norfolk.

— Hoc mihi juris Cum venia dabis. Hor.

LONDON:

Printed for R. MANBY, over against the Old-Bailey, on Ludgate-Hill.

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ADVERTISEMENT.

F the following Sheets come up to what is proposed in the Title-Page, it is all that thould be expected from them! A particular and exacts Confidention of Mr. Warburton's whole Book would feell an Answer 200 much, and perhaps make it zediously Upon this Account I have ability age I A Ro The first Part as might have been done. A great many Officiations weongly made by mifrepresented have been pailed even. Though in the Account that is given of the Athler Reasoning, in the Sevelet Party thewelling a good many interied produced and the tell of them targety · confidered. As I am not lendible of any Preindice to the learned and ingenious Author, -1 believe abereavily got any Algers ha found in this Review inconfiftent with sweet Breedings There is only one Think after to be mentioned; that is the Campule were most of them Jefrawn up toen the fact Volume of the Dismer Legara Asia will published my References are to the first Edition i float yet I have not sered to take his or the principal Altewhich and Additional in the become that have come in Chiv Rway, on Lingto His.

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ANSWER

TO

Mr. WARBURTON'S

Divine Legation of MOSES.

PART I.

Mr. WARBURTON'S Manner of quoting the Ancients.

IN Citations from Authors it is generally, and very reasonably, expected, that they should be fairly made, rightly understood, and justly applied.

Whether Mr. Warburton has paid a due Regard to these necessary Rules, must be left to the Reader's Judgment, when he has considered the following Instances: which Instances I shall take, pretty much, in the Order of his Book; and begin with that Quotation from Herodotus, which we find pag. 92.

I.

Mr. Warburton has been hitherto endeavouring to shew from Poets, Philosophers and B Histor Historians, the universal Belief of Religion in all policied States; and then immediately observes, But of all Nations the Egyptian was most celebrated for it's Care in cultivating Religion in general, and the Doctrine of a future State in particular. And how does this appear? Why, Herodotus, one of the most ancient Greek Historians, affirms, that they were the first who built Altars, and erected Statues and Temples to the Gods; and the first who taught that the Soul of Man was immortal. Then he immediately adds, the Sense of which only amounts to this; that the Egyptians were the first

and wifest policied People.

Herodotus's Words are thefe. - Bours TE x αγάλματά και νηθς θεοίσι απονείμαι σφέας ωρώτες. Euterp. c. 4. Πρώτοι δε και τόνδε τον λόγον Αιγύπλιοι είσι ειπόνλες, ώς ανθρώπε ψυχή αθαναλος isi. Ibid. c. 123. Now as to these Passages, it is to be observed in the first Place, that the Historian properly affirms nothing. He only relates a couple of Facts which the Egyptians affirmed to him when he was in their Country. He tells us expressly he pretends to no more, and leaves every one to judge for himself as to the Credibility of them. Toirs wer vor 'Arγυπτίων λεγομένοισι χράσθο όπεω τα τοιαυτα πιθανά εξί εμοί δε ταρά τούλα τον λόγον υπόκείζαι, ότι τα λεγόμενα υπ έκας ων ακοή γράφω. Ibid. c. 123. initio. Hence it may be reasonably inferred, in the next Place, that the Historian had no Thought of connecting these Facts with the Nature of the Egyptian Policy, or discovering from

from thence the Excellency of it, or, lastly, ces lebrating at all the Care the Egyptians took in cultivating Religion in general, or the Doctrine

of a future State in particular.

But there is farther Evidence that Herodotus had nothing of this in his Mind when he related these simple Facts. As to the former of them, viz. " that the Egyptians were the first " who built Altars and erected Statues and " Temples to the Gods;" whoever can think the natural Construction of it is, " the Care " the Egyptians took about Religion and Po-" licy," or that the Historian intended we should draw any such Inference from it; let him confider what Construction he will put upon a directly contrary Fact which the fame Author had related before concerning the Perfians. Clio c. 131. 'Ayanuala per x vys x Bu μές έκ εν νόμω σοιευμένες ιδρύεσθαι, αλλά κ, τοίσι ποιεύσι μωρίην επιΦέρασι ως μεν εμοί δοκεειν, ότι έκ ανθρωπωφυέας ενόμισαν τές θεές, καθάπερ δι Examples, Evan. " They are so far from setting " up Images or building Temples and Altars to " the Gods, that they esteem it even Madness to " do fo. The Reason of which the Historian rec-" kons to be, because they do not think the " Gods fprung from Men, as the Greeks do." And from whom the Greeks had this mean Notion of the Gods, the same Historian sufficiently hints to us, when he tells us, Euterp. c. a. immediately before the Citation we are now confidering. " That the Greeks borrowed the " Names of the twelve Gods from the Egyptians? B 2

"tians." Δυώδεκα τε Θεῶν ἐπωνυμίας πρώτες 'Αιγυπτίες νομίσαι, κὰ ἐλληνας παρὰ σΦέων ἀναλαβεῖν. I believe no one will now think, that Herodotus's Meaning, when he relates only what the Egyptians told him of their being the first that built Temples and Altars and set up Images to their Gods, was at all either to let us know their extraordinary Care about cultivating Religion, or to tell us, they were the best and wisest

policied People.

On the contrary, we see he tells us, that the Reason why the Persians did not erect Images and build Temples and Altars to the Gods, and even reckoned it Madness to do so, was, in bis Opinion, because they had not the same Notions concerning the Origin of the Gods, as the Greeks had. And as the Greeks took these Notions of the Gods from the Egyptians; the true Reason why the Egyptians erected Statues and built Temples and Altars to the Gods, was their entertaining the very meanest and lowest Notions concerning them: So far were these Actions from fignifying the early Care they took about cultivating Religion, or the Excellency and Wisdom of their civil Policy. If they were the first that entered into this Practice, they were the first that so grossly corrupted the ancient Notion of the Gods, as to affign them the very lowest, meanest Original: ανθρωπωφυέας ενόμισαν Te's Desig. And this is the only proper Consequence the Historian teaches us to draw from it.

And as to the latter Quotation; let it be obferved, first of all, that it is made in so concise a Manner,

a Manner, that the Historian's Sense cannot be at all discovered in it, or rather the Sense of the Egyptians who gave Herodotus his Information. But then, in the next Place, it may be observed, from the Manner of the Expression, that what the Egyptians told Herodotus concerning the human Soul, was not a mere Affertion of it's Immortality, but their Notion of the Nature, or Ratio, of this Immortality; what Conception they formed, and what Account they gave of it's Immortality. Πρώτοι δέ και τόνδε τον ΛΟΓΟΝ — δι είπόντες ΩΣ ανθρώπε ψυχή αθάναζος εςί. And then immediately follows the Account they gave of this Matter. Τέ σώματος δε καλαφθίvovoos, &c. " When the Body died, the Soul " entered into some other animal Body; and " from thence passed into another and another, " till it had circulated through all the Bodies of " Beafts, Fishes and Birds; and then it return-" ed into an human Body again. And the " Time required to finish one of these Revo-" lutions in, they faid, was 3000 Years." This is the Notion of the Soul's Immortality, which Herodotus informs us, the Egyptians said, they were the Inventors of. And it may be added, Herodotus mentions it, not only without giving the leaft Hint of any moral Designation in it, but plainly speaks of it as a mere natural Revolution, which all Souls equally made without any Distinction or Difference whatsoever, and were to make and repeat for ever. This at least is all that appears in the Historian's Representation. It is hard to see what View B 3 fuch

fuch a Notion as this could have; harder to conclude it a political Invention; but hardest of all to discern how the particular Doctrine of a future State could be cultivated by it. In Time indeed it might be, and certainly was, improved to serve many Purposes, both civil and religious. Herodotus however gives not the least Hint of any such Thing among the Egyptians, either here or any where else.

It will not be amiss to take Notice farther, that the Historian, immediately after giving this Account of the Egyptian Metempsychosis, or their Notion of the Soul's Immortality, tells us that several of the Greeks had held the same Notion, as if it had been their own; some earlier, some later: And says he could mention their Names, but does not care to do it: No Question having his Eye here upon Pythagoras and his Followers. Τέτω τῶ λόγω ἐισί δι ἐλλήνων ἐχρήσωνδο, δι μὲν πρότερον, δι δὲ ὑς ερον, ὡς ἰδίω ἐωῦτῶν ἐοντι' τῶν ἐγωὶ ἐιδῶς τὰ ἐνόμαδα ἐ γράφω.

11.

The next Quotation from the Ancients I would make a few Observations upon is the famous Preface to Zaleucus's Laws, mentioned

by Mr. Warburton, p. 112.

Allowing at present the Genuineness of it, we are only to consider whether Mr. Warburton has rightly understood and fairly represented the Sense of it. We must here a little consider how this Preface is introduced, and what it is brought to prove. It is here brought in to

prove

prove this Proposition, "The second Step the "Legislator took to inculcate Religion was, by " making the Doctrine of a Providence in it's " full Extent the grand Sanction of their " Laws: with which their Systems of Insti-" tutes were prefaced and introduced." By the Way, it is very hard to account for it, how Mr. Warburton came to express it in this Manner, " to inculcate Religion," when the Points to be made out was, " the Legislator's Care to " inculcate a future State of Rewards and " Punishments." However here it is (and we must take it as it is) to inculcate Religion; and in Order to inculcate this, the Legislators made the Doctrine of a Providence in it's full Extent the grand Sanction of their Laws. -- It is true indeed that Providence in it's full Extent, will include a future State of Rewards and Punishments. But then it is upon the Supposition, that the ancient Legislators had a previous Notion of fuch a State. For if they had no fuch Notion (and those who have read the Divine Legation with any Care will best judge whether it has been at all made appear hitherto that they had any fuch Notion), then a future State will not be included in the widest Extent of their Providence: And then though Providence, in the fullest Extent of it, was the Sanction of their Low, it will not follow, that the Doctrine of a future State made any Part of that Sanction. Nor does Mr. Warburton in what follows endeavour at all, or at least with any Appearance of Success, to make it probable, that the Doc-Cordide BA trine

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trine of a future State was included in their general Notion of a Providence.

And here it may be observed in general concerning the ancient Heathens, that they had a much stronger Apprehension of a present Retribution than we have, and than perhaps the Course of Things would justify. They talked very freely of the Appearance of one God or another in Favour of good Men; (imagining there was one Deity or other always ready to fuccour and affift them,) and on the other Hand as freely of Jupiter and his Bolt; and of Nemefis, (a Goddess appropriated to the Work) who would fooner or later in the present Life punish evil Men for their Deeds. What Herodotus fays with Relation to the final Ruin of Troy, expresses the general Sentiment of the Heathen World; and he adds, that it was the Design of that exemplary Destruction to confirm the fame Opinion *.

But to return now to Zaleucus's Preface.—
It is brought to prove that the ancient Legislators fanctioned their Laws with future Rewards and Punishments, and as being itself an Example of this Practice. Mr. Warburton cites it at large, and gives us his Translation of it. Let us now see what it says to the present Purpose.

Now it may be observed, that there is not in this *Preface* the least mention made of a future State at all; nor any Thing in it but what is

^{*} Των μεγάλων άδικημάτων μεγάλει εισί και άι τιμωςίαι σας ά των θεων. Ευτετρ. C. 120.

capable of being understood without the least Reference to fuch a State. The one only Thing that would feem to hint at it is what Zaleucus fays concerning Death. I will therefore cite this Part of it in the Margin +, and here give a true Translation of it. He advises those who have strong Inclinations to Injustice, " to re-" member the Gods as really existing and in-" flicting (or always ready to inflict) Punish-" ments upon unjust Men (or, as Mr. Warbur-" ton himself very well expresses the Original, " δίκας επιπεμπούρων τοῖς αδίκοις, the Judgments " they always have in Store, to inflict upon wick-" ed Men); and likewise to set before their " Eyes that Time, when there will be an End " of the present Life. For when People are " at the Point of dying (or parting with the pre-" fent Life) they reflect with Concern upon what " they have done unjustly, and wish they had " acted otherwise. Therefore it will be proper " for every one in his whole Conduct to fet this "Time before him, as if it was actually pre-" fent."—This, I hope, will be judged the true Sense of the Passage before us.

I observe then, in the next Place, that Mr. Warburton has very much overcharged Zaleucus's Sense in bis Manner of translating it. He

^{† —} μεμνήσθαι θεων ως όνθων ως δίκας επιπεμπόντων τοις άδικοις, κ) τίθεσθαι πρό όμματων τον καιρόν τύτον, εν ω γίνεθαι το τέλο εκάς ω της απαλλαγής το ζήν πασι γαρ εμπίπθει μεθαμίλεια τοις μέλλυσε κελευτάν, μεμνημένοις ων άδικήκασει ως όρμη το βέλεσθαι πάνθα πεπράχθαι δικάιως άυθοις διο δεί εκας ον παρ εκάς ην πράξεν άει συνοικειών τον καιρόν τύτον, ως δε παρόνθα.

fays-the dreadful Hour of Death .- But what is there in the Original that answers to it, or is at all like it? By adding indeed fuch an Epithet as dreadful, a Reader's Thoughts are presently carried to a future State of Things. For what but this can make the Idea of Death dreadful? And Cafar, as wrong as he was in other Things, was certainly in the right in representing Death as a Bleffing rather than otherwise, upon the Supposition of there being nothing to be feared beyond the Grave *. - Again, Seize with Remorfe, -is quite overdoing μελαμέλεια; which fignifies any Change of Mind, upon reflecting on the very lowest Degree of Guilt, or even without supposing any morally wrong Behaviour, or any Guilt at all. One chart sale was

And I observe farther, that all that Zaleucus says, with Relation to Death, here, may be accounted for without any Supposition of a future State of Things. For he might think, that all Injustice proceeded from too great a Value for the Enjoyments and Accommodations of the present Life. The Way for Men to lower their Esteem for these Things, and bring it nearer to what it ought in Reason to be, would be to habituate the Thought of Death, which will so certainly put an End to all the Acquisitions of the present World: That in this View, as mutable, uncertain, perishing Things +, they

Mortem ærumnarum requiem, non cruciatum, esse: eam cunsta mortalium mala dissolvere. Sallust.

restances and certa concentrated beclaric retui

[†] A Sentiment one is often meeting with among the Ancients.

Tanquam

must appear vastly less valuable, and consequently the Pursuits of them more moderate and better proportioned.—Those who affert there is more than this in Zaleucus's Meaning, should at least endeavour to prove what they fav.

Lastly, I observe, there seems to be some internal Evidence (beyond the Language) that this Preface was really not Zaleucus's, but the Composition of some Philosopher or Sophist; since it does not appear to be in the proper strain of a Legislator, nor very agreeable to such a one's Character. What a Direction is that for a Legislator to give to a Subject, viz. "Not to sear so much the Loss of Substance," as what leads to Dishonour and Ignominy; and to esteem him the best Citizen, who will part with his Substance, rather than with his Virtue and Integrity? *" For is this a Supposition proper for a Legislator to

Sit proprium cuiquam, punclo quod mobilis bora

Nunc prece, nunc pretio, nunc vi, nunc forte suprema,
Permutat dominos—
Sic quia perpetuus nulli datur usus, & hares
Haredem alterius, velut unda supervenit undam,
Quid vici prosunt aut horrea—Hor. Ep. L. 2. Ep. z.

Again, Sat. L. 2. S. 2. in the Person of Osellas;
Nam propriæ telluris berum natura neque illam

Nec me, nec quenquam statuit, nos expulit ille,
Illum aut nequities, aut vastri insettia juris,
Postremo, expellet certe vivacior hares.

Fortiaque adversis opponite pectora rebus.

THOUSER !

^{*} Καὶ μη φοδιίσθαι τὰς εἰς χεήμαλα ζημίας μάλλα τῶν ἐἰς αἰσχύνην τεινόθων. Καὶ πολίτην αμείνου ο ἐνομάζεν τὰς κὰ ἀρρίων περιίμενος μάλλω τὰ καλῦ ης δικαίο.

make, and to preface his Laws with; the whole Business and Design of which Laws is to preserve every one's peaceable Enjoyment of his Substance +? Such a one, surely, is not to suppose, that a good Subject can be stript of what he has; and the true and only Design of his Legislation is to prevent it. But if it be supposed, that this Discourse, said to be a Preface to a System of Laws, was composed by some Philosopher or Sophist, the whole will be in Character exactly.

III.

We will now proceed to a Citation from Tully's first Tusculan, c. 12, 13. which we find, Div. Legat. p. 151. and is here brought by Mr. Warburton to prove, that the Error of Polytheism and the Unity of God were the Secrets

of the greater Mysteries.

He has been endeavouring to prove this from Cudworth, Chrysppus, Clemens Alexandrinus, and Jamblichus in the Life of Pythagoras; but, last of all, cites Tully for this Purpose; and lays the greatest Stress upon his Authority. For thus he introduces it: "But Cicero fully "reveals the whole Mystery, and confirms "every Thing we have said concerning it." For which he cites two Passages; one from the first Tusculan, the other from the Nature

+ Hanc enim ob causam maxime, ut sua tenerent, respublica

eivitatesque constitutæ funt. Cic. Offic. L. 2. c. 21.

Neque vero boc solum natura, id est, jure gentium, sed etiam legibus populorum, quibus in singulis civitatibus respublica continetur, eodem modo constitutum est, ut non liceat sui commodi causa nocere alteri. Hoc enim spectant leges. Hoc volunt, incolumem esse civium conjunctionem.——Ibid. L. 3. c. 5.

emake and to preis

of the Gods. Both which shall be considered

presently.

In the mean while one cannot but be a little concerned for the Author's Confiftency with himself. Here he says, Tully has revealed the whole Mystery; yet if we look no farther back than p. 145. we shall find him complaining, that the Design of the greater Mysteries " seems " to lie altogether in the dark; so religiously " was the Secret kept." Upon which he adds, "We shall therefore proceed cautiously, and " try, from the obscure Hints dropped up and " down in Antiquity, Pandere res alta terra " & caligine mersas." And if we look no farther forward than p. 157. we find him renewing again the very fame Complaint, and with somewhat more Particularity: " Little is to be " met with in Antiquity about it : Varro and " Cicero, the two most inquisitive Persons in it, " affording us but a glimmering Light. The " first giving us a short Account of the Cause " only of the fecret Doctrines, without menti-" oning the Matter; and the other, an Hint " of the Matter, without any Notice of the " Cause."-Now what is this but to say, that an Hint, and that but an obscure one too, is equivalent to a full Discovery?

But now for the first Citation.

" Quid? totum prope cælum, ne plures per-" sequar, nonne humano genere completum est? " si vero scrutari vetera, & ex bis ea, quæ " Scriptores Græciæ prodiderunt, eruere coner; " ipsi illi, majorum gentium dii qui habentur, " binc à nobis profecti in cœlum reperientur. " Quære, quorum demonstrantur Sepulera in

"Gracia: reminiscere, quoniam es initiatus, qua tradantur mysteriis; tum denique quam

" boc late pateat, intelliges."

There is no Objection to this Quotation, as to the Manner of it; nor to Mr. Warburton's Translation of it: But there is very good Reafon to find Fault with his taking no manner of Notice of the Context and Connexion: without which the true Design and Meaning of this Passage cannot be understood, nor consequently the Evidence it affords in the Cafe before us. What therefore he has omitted, I

shall endeavour to supply.—

The young Man, at the Beginning of the 12. c. defires Cicero (or M; whatever that Letter stands for; at present we may suppose Tully himself to be the Speaker, under this Charac-'ter) to prove to him, if he can, that "the human Mind has a proper Existence after " Death : - animos remanere post mortem." In Answer, Tully says, " He could produce the " very best Authorities to support that Opinion " -and that it had all Antiquity (even the " earlieft, which was therefore the best) in it's " Favour: That this was in particular the Opi-" nion of the old Inhabitants of Latium: That " the fame Opinion was manifest from a Mul-"titude of Circumstances, besides that remark-" able one, the Care every where taken to ce-" lebrate and preserve the Memory of the " Dead by funeral Rites and Monuments, TinA " Which,

"Which, fays he, cannot be accounted for " otherwise, nisi bæsisset (I choose to give the " Original here for several Reasons) in corum " mentibus, mortem non interitum esse omnia tol-" lentem atque delentem, sed quandom quafi Mi-" grationem commutationemque vitæ, quæ in cla-" ris viris & fæminis dux in cælum soleret esse, " in cæteris bumi & retineretur & permaneret " tamen." Then he goes on to this Purpose: " Hence, fays he, with us Romans it is the " common Opinion, that Romulus lives with " the Gods in Heaven; and with the Greeks " (from whom we have derived the fame No-" tion, and it reaches much farther) that Her-" cules is deified, and esteemed a God of great " Power and Influence. And the same Opini-" on obtains of Bacchus and Castor and Pol-" hex and Ino .- But why should I go on in " naming Particulars, when Heaven is even " filled with those illustrious Personages, who " once lived here upon Earth? And if I should " fearch farther into Antiquity, and particu-" larly confider what the Greek Writers have " faid upon this Subject, it would appear, that " even those, who are stiled the Dii majorum " gentium, were themselves once Inhabitants of our World. For this Purpose you may in-" quire too, whose those Monuments are, " which may be met with in feveral Parts of " Greece, and also recollect (for you have been " initiated) what are the Discoveries that are "made in the Mysteries: And then you will " easily understand how large a Field here is " before us."-And

And thus having supplied Mr. Warburton's Omissions, and given this Passage with it's Introduction and Connexion with the rest of Tulh's Discourse, I am at Liberty to make a few

Observations upon it.

Tully is here proving it to be agreeable to the Sentiments of all Antiquity, even the earliest and best, " that the Souls of Men have a dif-"tinct and proper Existence after Death." This appears from the Deification of many Persons, who once lived in this World. Nay, he fays, that even the Dii majorum gentium were no other than illustrious Personages, who, though by their extraordinary Merits they had qualified themselves for supreme Honours in Heaven, yet were once Inhabitants of this Earth. This, fays he, appears from the ancientest Greek Writers, who have treated of this Matter, and given us the very Genealogy and History of these Gods. It appears too from even the sepulchral Monuments, which are yet remaining in several Parts of Greece. And, lattly, it appears from the Things related and discovered in the Mysteries instituted to and celebrated in Remembrance of fuch and fuch Gods. -- Hence it is plain, that, whatever was the general View of the Mysteries, and how far foever the Discoveries made in them were carried, yet the only Intention of mentioning them bere was on Account of their Agreement and Coincidence with what was related by the ancientest Greek Writers, and expressed by the very sepulchral Monuments, which are still remaining

in Greece. The Discovery made by these Writers and Monuments plainly shewed, that these Gods, who were now supremely happy (according to the universal Opinion) in Heaven, were once no more, nor other, than Men and Women Inhabitants of the present World. This, I say, is the special View, with which the Mysteries are here mentioned by Tully; and to extend them any farther, to any other Particulars whatfoever, is to go beyond Tully, and extort Meanings, which, for any thing that can be known to the contrary, he never thought of. And how can mentioning them with this fpecial View, be revealing the whole Mystery, and confirming EVERY THING Mr. Warburton has faid about that Institution? Whatever it was that was discovered in these Mysteries land Tully does not fay what it was) yet at least it must be something which plainly shewed, that the particular Gods to whom they were inftituted, had formerly been Inhabitants of the present World; otherwise they had not been mentioned bere. And the intire View of mentioning them bere, was this, and this only; And consequently, to say, that here is any Revelation of the whole Secret of these Mysteries. (or indeed any proper Revelation of the Secret at all) is going greatly beyond what Tully fays.

We will now examine the other Citation, which is brought from the Natura Deorum, c. 42. which Mr. Warburton reckons still more for his Purpose. For thus he introduces it.

"But Tully goes further; he tells us in anomit ther Place, that not only the Eleusinian Mys"ther Place, that not only the Eleusinian Mys"teries, but likewise the Samothracian, and
"the Lemnian, taught the Error of Polytheism,
"agreeably to our Hypothesis."—The Quotation follows thus; "Quid qui aut fortes, aut
"claros, aut potentes viros tradunt post mortem
"ad Deos pervenisse, eosque esse ipsos, quos nos
"colere, precari, venerarique, soleamus — ab
"Eubemero & mortes & sepulturæ demonstran"tur Deorum. Omitto Eleusinam sanctam illam
"& augustam—prætereo Samothraciam eaque
"Quæ Lemni

" Nocturno aditu occulta coluntur

" Silvestribus sæpibus densa."

The Remarks I have to make upon this Citation, are these: It is so imperfectly made, that no one can possibly make Sense of it, without confulting the Original. And yet it is made in fuch a Manner, as would too naturally lead an overhafty Gueffer into a very wrong Notion of it. Instead of that Break after foleamus, which leaves the Sense quite imperfect, had he added what immediately follows, it would presently have been seen, that this Pasfage contains a fevere Censure, instead of an Approbation, of the Persons here meant: For thus the Sentence ends; " Quid? qui aut fortes aut - - - - foleamus, nonne expertes " funt religionum omnium?" And then Eulemerus is particularly mentioned as having treated of the Nature of the Gods in this Manner, i.e. as having represented them as mere human

man Beings, who had died out of this World, and whose Sepulchres were known, and many of them still remaining. Now, can any Reafon be affigned for Mr. Warburton's mairning his Quotation as he has done; but only, that it would not have been for his Purpose had he done otherwise, and given it us intire? for here Euhemerus, and all the rest, that were in the fame Way of thinking, are really cenfured, as overturning and destroying all Religion. And then, how would it have looked in Mr. Warburton, to have put the Eleusinian, and the other Mysteries, upon the same footing with Euhemerus and his Followers; and represented them as void of, and inconfistent with, all Re-The Remarks I have to make upon 15 noigh

But then further; it should have been confidered in the next Place, who is the Speaker here; and upon what Occasion this is said. Tully himself is not the Speaker; but Cotta? and what he fays here is in Answer to Velleius. who had argued just before concerning the Gods, in the Person of an Epicurean. By way of Answer to him, Cotta observes, "That the " Epicurean Notion of the Gods utterly sub-" verted all Religion, as really and effectually "as Atheism itself: as effectually as those do. " who make the Notion of the Gods a mere " political Invention to awe fuch as will not "be governed by Reason; as effectually as " Chius Prodicus did, who thought the Gods " were nothing else but the useful Things of "Life personated; and as effectually as those,

hadi

" Ubi initiantur gentes orarum ultimæ,

" prætereo Samothraciam eaque,

" Quæ Lemni " Nocturno, &c.

And with Relation to all these concludes thus (which Conclusion Mr. Warburton has thought fit to drop) " Quibus explicatis, ad rationem-" que revocatis, rerum magis natura cognoscitur " quam Deorum." By which he plainly feems to hint to us (and perhaps he did not care to fay more) that the Mysteries, under the Pretence of Religion, were really and truly nothing elfe, but an Explanation of natural Phænomena, and not of the Nature of the Gods at all. In this Sense, there will be some Connexion of this Incident of the Mysteries with the rest of Cotta's Discourse: (especially, if in these Explications of natural Phænomena, it was, as poffibly it might be, intended to reduce the Actions of the Gods to Effects produced by natural Causes; like that in Homer of Apollo's shooting his Darts among the Grecians; which might be nothing else but a Pestilence produced in a warm Climate by the Heat of the Sun.)

And now I think, upon this Review, it will appear, that what Cotta fays, or hints here, concerning the Mysteries, is so far from being to the present Purpose, that it is very much a-

gainst it .-

apris

Yet I must just observe farther, with Relation to this Paffage; that Tully must not be cenfured as inconfiftent here with what was cited before out of the Tusculans. For, perhaps, Tully himself speaks in neither Place; but most certainly not bere: And perhaps Cotta was an uninitiated Person, and spoke only according to fuch Report as was at that Time common.—Nor yet is there an absolute Inconsistency: For possibly there was in the Mysteries. fomething of both, viz. the Genealogy and History of the Gods, without any direct Intention to lessen their Authority and Influence; and a Solution of many Fictions concerning them (fuch as Saturn's castrating his Father Calus, and devouring his own Children, and Jupiter's imprisoning him, &c.) by the ordinary Effects of physical Causes.

And whereas he cites Plutarch next as speaking much to the same Purpose with Tully (meaning, I suppose, in the last Quotation;) where, censuring the strange Stories the Dramatic Poets told of the Gods, he says, "They seemed to do "it, as if industriously to oppose what was "taught and done in the most holy Myste-"ries." I shall venture to say, that in his Manner of understanding Tully, there is no Resemblance at all between him and what Plus

tarch fays upon this Occasion. But if the Sense of Cotta in the Natura Deorum, be what is above observed, then there will be a plain and very eafy Agreement. Cotta hints at an allegorical Sense being put upon the History and Actions of the Gods in the Mysteries; and Plutarch thinks it very abfurd to perfift in relating fuch Things concerning the Gods, as could not be understood otherwise than in a figurative Sense: Since this was only opposing the Business and Design of the Mysteries; which, even without fuch Opposition, were never likely to attain their full Effect, and prevent all the ill Influences of fuch, to Appearance, idle Stories concerning the Gods: As the Numbers of the initiated would always fall vaftly short of those that were otherwise.-But this from Plutarch might have paffed without Notice, as the Author himself has thought fit to drop it in the second Edition of his Book. I are more willing our down at it saven M.

above from Tully, without making the three following Observations upon them both.

as the best Evidence he has) to prove that the Secrets of the greater Mysteries were the Error of Rolycheism and the Unity of God, peculiarly so, it does not any Ways appear that Tully in either of the said Passages is speaking of the greater Mysteries at all. He speaks only of the Mysteries at large or in general. And whether he knew of any such Distinction of them as that

that into greater and less, does not appear from these Passages, and I believe, from no other of his Writings (though this is by no Means any Evidence either that there was really no such Distinction of the Mysteries into greater and lesser, or that Tully knew absolutely nothing of it.)

2. I observe that Tully (or whoever speaks in the Passages above) seems to put the Discoveries that were made in the Mysteries upon the same Footing and Level with those that were made by the Greek Writers, and Eubemerus in particular, who related the Histories and Genealogies and Sepulchres of the Gods. But these Gods were Jupiter, Bacchus, Ceres, Proserpine, &c. Men and Women who had once lived upon Earth, and were afterwards for their Merits deisied. Therefore,

3. If these and such as these were the only Discoveries that were made in the Eleusinian Mysteries, it is much too hasty merely from hence to conclude, that the grand Anogenia were the Errors of Polytheism and the Unity of God. Since neither of these will follow from the mere proving Jupiter, Bacchus, Ceres, Proserpine, &c. to have been formerly Men and Women Inhabitants of the present World. For the Godship of the Sun, and Moon, and Ouperos — would still remain inviolate and untouched. As it certainly does, for any Thing that Tully has said in either of the Passages above.

Here, as it comes in under the Head of the Mysteries in our Author, I shall incidentally ob-

ferve a Mistake of Tully's Sense in a Passage quoted from him, p. 161, 162. A long Quotation is here made from the Second Book of Laws, c. 14. the Conclusion of which is this; "Quid autem mihi displiceat in nocturnis, Poe-" tæ indicant comici. Qua licentia Romæ data,
" quidnam egisset ille, qui in Sacrificium cogita" tam libidinem intulit, quo ne imprudentiam quidem oculorum adjici fas fuit." In nocturnis is undoubtedly the true Reading. And by facrificium here Tully no question means the fame as by nocturna facra, and nocturna facrificia just before, viz. That Sacrifice, quo ne imprudentiam oculorum adjici fas fuit; that is the Mysteries of the Bona Dea. How does Mr. Warburton then render this Passage? Thus: "But what it is that displeases me in nocturnal Rites, the comic Poets will shew you, "Which Liberty of Celebration, had it been "permitted at Rome, what Wickedness would not be have attempted, who came with a "premeditated Defign to execute his Luft, to " a Sacrifice, where even the Missehaviour of the Eye was highly criminal." Now I think we may at the first Sight discern, that this Tranflation cannot give us Tully's true Sense. For does it not manifestly allow that there were Sacrifices, where the Misbehaviour of the Eye was not criminal? But can it be imagined Tully would allow the Misbehaviour of the Eye in any Acts of Religion to be innocent? Not at all. Misbehaviour is the same as wrong Behaviour, and imports fomething of Will and Defign. But ferve

But Tully does not here oppose one faulty Will or Defign to another; but what is much more emphatical, he contrasts one even in itself innocent Action, with another which was in itfelf wicked, in order to fet the latter in the more glaring Light, and help us the more ftrongly to apprehend the Iniquity of it, when applied to a particular Occasion, upon which Occasion, even the other, in itself innocent Action, was esteemed a criminal one. Thus, if a Man came to a Sacrifice with a directly wicked Intention, at which Sacrifice it was contrary to the Law, i. e. established Custom, and what was univerfally thought to be right, for any Man whatever to be present, though it were even by Accident, would not the observing this fet that wicked Intention in the strongest Light that was possible? Now this was Tully's Thought, "What would not that Man (Clo-" dius) have done, what Wickednesses could " he have been thought capable of bogling at, "who could come to the Mysteries of the " Mother of the Gods with an incestuous De-" fign, to which Mysteries yet no Man was al-"lowed to approach, and which were judged " to be polluted if a Man did but cast an Eye " upon them, though it was by mere Accident, " unknowingly, unwittingly, without any the " least Intention of so doing?" This is the Imprudentia oculorum mentioned here by Tully, not the Misbehaviour, or wrong Behaviour, of the Eye (which imports fomething of Defign) but absolutely the most casual, fortuitous Use of it whatwhatfoever. And this is exactly the very fame Sentiment with that which Tully expressed upon another Occasion, with Relation to Clodius's Guilt: and he contrasted it in the same Manner: When he said of him, Orat. de Harusp. Respons: that he did non solum adspectu virili, fed flagitio stuproque violare, viz. the Mysteries of the Bona Dea (that is, he did intentionally violate them: For the actual Execution of his Defign was in great Measure prevented.) This is farther plain from the Manner of Clodius's Discovery: Which likewise shews too, that what might not be looked upon " virili ad-" spectu," might be in any Manner looked upon " muliebri adspectu;" but was not in Truth fit for any Body's Sight at all, and proper only to be covered with thick Darkness.

Mr. Warburton p. 295. comes to give us the Opinion of the ancient Sages concerning the Necessity of the Doctrine of a future State of Rewards and Punishments to the well Being of Society. He speaks of them as being unanimous in this Point, how discordant soever and at Variance among themselves, in all other Matters. But out of the great Variety of Testimonies which he has here before him, he felects only four, as a Specimen of the universal Voice of ancient Wisdom in the present Case. These are Timæus's, Polybius's, Strabo's, and that of Pling the Elder. How far they all speak to his Purpose, is not within the present Design to shew. But I believe, every one who thoroughads: ly

ly confiders what they fay, will find a furprize ing Failure in their Evidence. - the same and

It is Polybius's I would fay formething to.

Mr. Warburton has given us his Words at large, and his own Translation of them, which the Reader may fee, p. 297, 298. Polybius speaking of the Excellence of the Roman Constitution, expresses himself after this Manner : Then follows the Translation: " But the fu-" perior Excellency of this Policy above others, " manifests itself, in my Opinion, chiefly in " the religious Notions the Romans hold con-" cerning the Gods. That Thing, which in " other Places is turned to Abuse, being the " very Support of the Roman Affairs; I mean, " Superstition, &c." See the rest in the Div.

Legat.

Mr. Warburton appears to have made this Translation with the greater Liberties, in order to serve the present Purpose a little more effectually. But whoever examines the Original with any Care, will, I believe, find it may be rendered much better and with greater Exactness, thus-" And that which feems to me " (though others find Fault upon that Ac-" count) to have kept the Roman Affairs in the " State in which they are, is their Superstition " (xeyw de The desordanceoviar) which in publick, " in private, as to the State, and as to Indivi-" duals, is come to fuch a Pitch, that nothing " can exceed it." -- Where the Historian plainly has his Eye upon those superstitious Practices, with which not only private Persons, but even

the State begun, carried on, and ended every Thing they undertook. Something of this Kind mixed itself with every Transaction in both publick and private Life. This is what Polybius first takes Notice of, and he goes on : "Whereas, fays he, this may and does feem " very furprizing to many, to me it appears to " have been contrived and carried on in the " Manner it has been, on Account of the Vul-" gar," (or Multitude, as Mr. Warburton himfelf presently renders the Word wangos; and should here have rendered it in the same Manner, and not as he does Community). The Historian's Meaning is very evident from what immediately follows: " If indeed a civil Soci-" ety was to confift only of wife Men, perhaps " fuch a fuperstitious Manner of acting would " not be necessary. But the Vulgar, who are " the most numerous in all States, (or in one " Word, the Multitude, as Mr. Warburton him-" felf here very well expresses it) are fickle, " various, full of, and always apt to be hurried " away by, irrational, impetuous Affections: "And the Way left to govern and restrain these, " is the dread of invisible Powers and such like " amazing Apprehensions." (Mr. Warburton's Translation and mine must here be submitted to Correction). " For this Reason the Ancients " appear to me, in introducing among the Vulgar [or in bringing into the publick Belief] "the Notions of the Gods and of a future " State, not to have acted foolishly or inconside-" rately. But on the contrary, those Moderns · 201

" are justly chargeable, or much more charge-" able with acting in that Manner, who are " for rejecting every Thing of this Kind." It is hard to guess how Mr. Warburton came to render επ είκη κ) ως ετυχεν, with great Judg-ment and Penetration. If he took it for a Meiofis, it furely is not so; for then Polybius could not have expressed himself as he does in what follows, σολύ δε μαλλον οι νῦν είκη κ αλόγος εκβάλλειν αυτά. Is this—and the prefent Age as abfurdly and inconsiderately -? No: The Meaning is: " Whatever may be thought of " those who first introduced Superstition, " whereby to govern the Vulgar: Some may " and do think they acted inconfiderately, cer-" tainly those Moderns act much more so, who " are for rejecting and exploding every Thing " of this Kind."

Mr. Warburton in his Translation here, has made another Addition to Polybius; and likewise at the same Time such a one to the Folly of those Insidel Moderns, as renders it extreme, much beyond what Polybius supposes.—And encouraging the Multitude to despise their Terror, viz. of the Gods, and what is to be in Hades. There is nothing of this in the Original: And Polybius goes on to illustrate what he has been saying, by an Observation or two concerning the different Conduct of Greeks and Romans, in parallel Cases. A Roman intrusted with Money will be honest; a Greek will not be so, &c.—

It is not easy to avoid making one Observation, on Occasion of this Passage out of Poly bius.-He plainly infimuates, that these libertine Notions concerning the Gods and a future State. had now for fome time foread themselves over Greece, and that the Infection was general. Yet the Eleusimian Mysteries were now, and for Ages afterwards, in high Vogue. Sopater, who lived long after Polybius's Time, and is quoted a little before by Mr. Warburton, p. 182. faid, that they gained their End; which was to establish the general Doctrine of a Providence. and inculcate the Belief of a future State, and fo, cleared up all Doubts concerning the righteous Government of the Gods. But the Truth of all this is strangely shaken, when one reflects feriously on the Account which the Historian here gives of his Countrymen. It cannot be pretended he did not know them: Perhaps, no Man at that Time had better Opportunities than himself. Yet we see he represents them as thoroughly corrupt in their Sentiments concerning Religion, invisible Powers, a Providence, and a future State; and, in Confequence of this, as quite wicked and abandoned in their Practice. And let it be observed, there is no History that contradicts this Account of them: Nay, there is none but what confirms it.

I cannot dismiss this Head without just taking Notice of another of Mr. Warburton's Sages; who, though an Epicurean, is supposed by him to be so sensible of the Necessity of the Doctrine of a suture State, to the Continuance

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and well-governing of a Civil Society, that he would by all Means have it thoroughly inculcated. This must needs appear wonderful, and will therefore deserve to be a little attended to. The Person here meant, is Pliny the elder: And Mr. Warburton thus expresses his Sense: " It is necessary to Society, that Men should " believe the Gods concerned themselves in hu-" man Affairs; and that the Punishments they " inflict on Offenders, though sometimes late " indeed—yet are never to be evaded." Pliny's Words are these: " Verum in his Deos a-" gere curam rerum bumanarum credi, ex usu " vitæ est: pænasque maleficiis aliquando seras, " occupato deo in tanta mole, nunquam autem ir-" ritas effe." It would be strange indeed, if a Punishment inflicted, could be evaded. What is evaded, cannot be inflicted; and to fay, what is inflicted, is evadable, is a Contradiction. Therefore one might conclude, that Pliny, though an Epicurean, and groß enough in his Manner of Expression, yet could not express himself in so absurd a Way as this. And indeed he does not. " Pænas maleficiis" is the Punishment of or for Crimes, i. e. due to Crimes.—" Nunquam irritas effe," will never fail of taking Effect; or, cannot, by avoidance, be made of no Effect. Well; Pliny fays, "That " to believe the Gods concern themselves in " human Affairs, and inflict Punishments for " evil Deeds, is useful in Life, " ex usu vitæ " eft." It is convenient and useful, that Men " should believe this." This is not faying, or abde own-

owning it to be necessary to Society; or, that Society cannot fubfift without fuch a Notion. But, if it was fo, it would fall greatly short of the present Purpose. For here is not a Tittle concerning Punishments in a future State. And, by far most probably, Pliny had them not at all in his Thoughts, when he wrote this grave Reflection; but meant only fuch Punishments as the Gods were wont to inflict on Offenders in the present Life; or were commonly represented as fo doing. thele: We run by his Dess co

How Mr. Warburton came fo much to miftake the Meaning, as he does, pag. 352. of one of the plainest and easiest Passages in all Tully's Works, is not eafily to be accounted for. It is in the first Tusculan. But before we come to the Passage itself, it will be proper to inquire a little into the Occasion and Manner of it's being introduced. Mr. Warburton is here inquiring into the Character of Plato and his Philosophy, and finding that he was infinitely fond of the Double Doctrine, and more profefsedly than any other avowed the Principles on which that Distinction was founded; and, in a Word, that the Ancients thought this Distinction a necessary Key to his Writings; he then particularly observes, that Albinus, an old Platonist, reckoned all those Books to be of the exoteric Kind, where Plato details out the Doctrine of a future State of Rewards and Punishments; Criton, Phado, &c. I believe every one that reads what Mr. Werburton fays here, will imagine, that

that Albinus in his Introduction to Plato's Dialogues, had expressly distinguished Plato's Doctrine into the Exoterick and Esoteric. And yet throughout that Introduction, this Distinction is never once mentioned, nor, I think, in the least hinted at. And here in this Chapter, to which we are referred, viz. the 5th, Albinus is fo far from ranging these Dialogues under those two Heads, that he makes eight Divisions of them. It is true, he ranges the Criton, Pheedo. &c. under the same general Head, and he calls it woll mov. Mr. Warburton thinks this decifive in his Favour, and that wolfmon is exactly the fame as ¿ξωθερικόν. For thus he expresses himfelf: "From whence," viz. from Albinus's Introduction, " it appears, he fays, that those " very Books, in which Plato details out the " Doctrine of a future State-are all of the " exoteric Kind. For in that Class Albinus " ranks the Criton, Phado, Minos, &c." All the Evidence here is the mere Word wolfixov, which yet determines nothing in his Favour. and probably means no more than focial, ad focietatem pertinens; in much the same Manner as when the Ancients called Man Guov woll-TINOV; i. e. a focial Animal, ad focietatem aptum, focietati idoneum. And it does not appear from any Part of this Introduction, that Albinus himfelf thought there was less of Plato's real Sentiments in these Dialogues, than in any of his other Works. And it may be farther added, that had any other Ancient, whether Platonist

or not *, ranged the Dialogues under general Heads, it is greatly probable he would have done it differently from Albinus. What Evidence therefore can this Division afford?

Now comes in the Quotation from Tully; concerning which Mr. Warburton thus expresses

himself-

" There is an odd Passage in Cicero, which " feems to regard the Phado in this very Light, " of a mere exoteric Composition, as it con-" cerns the Doctrine of a future State of Re-" wards and Punishments. The Auditor is ad-" vised to read the Phado, to confirm his Be-" lief in this Point; to which he replies-" feci mehercule, & quidem sæpius: sed nescio quomodo, dum lego affentior, cum posui librum, " & mecum ipse de immortalitate animorum cæpi " cogitare, assentio omnis illa elabitur. The on-" ly reasonable Account I can give of this Re-" flection is, that the Phado being an exoterical " Dialogue, and wrote for the People, was " esteemed by the Learned, as a Kind of phi-" losophical Romance." First of all, I have pointed this Passage differently from what Mr. Warburton has done in his Book +, in order to make the true Sense and Force of those Words, nescio quomodo, more easily apprehended by the

* Mr. Warburton must know very well, there are several other Divisions of these Dialogues by different Hands: Some of which may be seen in Stanley.

⁺ Mr. Warburton's Pointing is thus:—" feci mehercule, & "quidem sæpius: sed nesc10 QUOMODO dum lego assention: "cum posui librum, & mecum ipse de immortalitate animorum cæpi" cogitare, assentio omnis illa elabitur."

Reader.

Reader. Mr. Warburton plainly lays a mighty Stress upon them, for he has printed them in Capitals. But he seems to confine the Sense of them to the first Member of the Sentence, " dum lego affentior:" Whereas they equally extend their Meaning to the latter: " cum po-" fui librum & mecum, &c." The Meaning is this: " While he read, he affented; but as " foon as he laid the Book aside, and begun to " think with and by himself upon the Subject, " he was presently all in Doubt and Suspense: " And he knew not how to account for this." And in the next Place, where is the Oddness of fuch a Paffage? Might not fuch an Answer as this be put into the Mouth of a young Man, without the least Infinuation, that in the Opinion of the Learned in Tully's Time, the Phadon was only a philosophical Romance, wrote on Purpose to deceive the People? There is certainly nothing in this Tusculan, either preceding or following, that encourages fuch a Construction in the least. And methinks it is as natural a Sentiment too, in the ordinary Manner of understanding it, as could be put into the Mouth of a young Man, or indeed an old one, not in a good Degree habituated to Reflections on this Subject. There have been fince Tully's Time a great many Books written on the same Subject with the utmost Seriousness (Mr. Warburton himself somewhere in this Work takes Notice of one, I believe the last upon the Subject; and commends it highly,) and have been generally read. Now, would he ask these Readers, what D2 their

their Opinion grounded upon the Reasons produced by these Authors is, after having perused the Books and laid them for a while aside: Doubtless he would find nine in ten would return much the same Answer. From hence therefore nothing can be concluded of Tully's ranking the Phædon among the exoterical Compositions.

VII.

The next Quotations I would take Notice of, are likewise from Tully; and the most remarkable of them, and what will require the most to be faid to it, is from that first Tusculan. See Div. Legat. p. 366. Mr. Warburton is here inquiring particularly, into Tully's own Opinion concerning a future State of Rewards and Punishments. He finds it difficult to come at Tully's real Sentiment upon almost any Subject, but thinks we are most likely to meet with his real Sentiments in the Point before us in his Epiftles; though in his other Writings "there are many " fignal Instances of his Disbelief; --- as in his " Offices *, which bids the fairest of any to be " spoke from his Heart, he delivers himself to " purpose against it ___." What Evidence the Offices afford in the present Case, will be afterterwards confidered: As likewise that Passage from the Oration for Cluentius, which is here

^{*} This Book is often mentioned as one of the likeliest where to find Tully's own Sentiments. Yet in this Performance he professedly plays the Stoic, and seldom appears in his own Person, in any very material Point. "Sequemur igitur hoc quidem tempore & hac in questione potissimum Stoicos—." L. I. C. 2.

produced. After which come feveral Quotations from the Epiftles, which might have been

a great many more.

They are these that follow. To Torquatus he fays; - " Sed hæc confolatio levis eft; illa gra-" vior, quâ te uti spero : ego certe utor. Nec "Zenim dum ero, angar ulla re, cum omni va-" cem culpà: etfi non ero, sensu omnino care-" bo." Again, to the fame Person: - Deinde " quod mibi ad consolationem commune tecum est, " si jam vocar ad exitum vitæ, non ab ea re-" publica avellar, qua carendum esse doleam, præ-" fertim cum id fine ullo sensu futurum sit." And to his Friend Toranius-" Cum confilio " profici nibil possit, una ratio videtur, quicquid " evenerit, ferre moderate, præsertim cum om-" nium rerum mors fit extremum *." The first of these Passages is, I think, misquoted in the emphatical Part of it. Instead of-" Eth " non ero"-it should be, " Et si non ero"and so, I believe, it generally is in the printed Editions. Why it is here altered, I know not. But any one that looks into the Epiftle will fee, the Sense is much fuller, and more in Tully's Manner, as it is commonly printed, than as it is here given us by Mr. Warburton. And, as to the Sense of this and both the other Citations, it may be only this: " That Death will put an " End to all the Wants of the present Life."

^{*} As to the Meaning of these and such like Expressions, which are to be met with in Tully's Epistles, the learned Dr. Middleton may be consulted: Who gives very good Reasons why they should not be taken in Mr. Warburton's Sense.

And if Tully, in Letters of Confolation to a few Epicurean Friends, whom in the main he had a good Opinion of, has expressed that plain Sentiment in a Way, which rather seemed to fall in with and allow their own favourite Opinion (of no future State) it needs not be the Occasion

of either Censure or Wonder.

Mr. Warburton himself (in the 2d Edit. of his Book) acknowledges the Conciseness of these Passages; but tells us, that Tully himself has given us in his Tusculan Disputations a clear Comment upon them, though what he delivers there is only bypothetical. And for this Purpose he cites the following Passages out of the first Tusculan. " M. Video te alte spectare & " velle in cælum migrare. A. Spero fore, ut " contingat id nobis : sed fac, ut isti volunt, ani-" mos non remanere post mortem. - M. Mali vero " quid affert ista sententia? Fac enim sic animum " interire ut corpus; num igitur aliquis dolor, " aut omnino post mortem sensus in corpore est? " - Neinanimo quidem igitur sensus remanet: " Ipse enim nusquam est. - Hoc premendum etiam " atque etiam est argumentum, confirmato illo, de " quo, si mortales animi sunt, dubitare non possu-" mus, quin interitus in morte sit, ut ne minima " quidem suspicio sensus relinquatur." Mr. Warburton taking these Passages for a clear Comment upon those from the Epistles, leaves them to fpeak their own Sense, without either translating or giving us the least Account of the Occasion of them. Whether they are at all to his Purpose will be prefently feen, This

This first Tusculan Disputation is intended to prove that Death is no Evil, and confequently, that it is not an Object of Fear, but rather of Slight and Contempt: And it proceeds upon these two Suppositions: " After Death we " shall either be happy, or, not be at all." In the former Part of this Disputation, Tully goes upon the first Supposition: Which he endeavours to prove by this Medium, viz. "that our " Minds will furvive the Body." And here he brings a Variety of Arguments, chiefly from Plato: Not to prove the mere Permanency of the Soul, but it's diffinct Existence, as a reasonable, felf-moving Nature, and capable therefore of distinct personal Enjoyment. And from hence, according to him, it follows, " that " Death is so far from being an Evil, that it " ought to be looked upon as the greatest Good, " upon feveral Accounts, but chiefly as it de-" livers the Soul from the Clog and Restraints " of the Body." Having done this, he then, ex abundanti, goes upon the latter Supposition, viz. " of the Soul's not furviving the Body." And he prefaces this Part of the Disputation, with the Reason of his making this Supposition: viz. because he had a Mind thoroughly to convince his Auditor or young Man, that in no possible Case whatsoever Death was an Evil. " Ego autem num-" quam ita te in boc sermone dimittam, ulla utira-" tione mors tibi videri malum possit." He owns indeed that there was some Obscurity in the preceding Arguments made Use of to prove the proper Existence of the Soul after the Dissolution

of the Body; and likewise takes Notice of the natural Mutableness of Mens Minds, even in Matters more obvious and more easy of Conception: And for these Reasons desires to be prepared against all Events. His young Man had told him, that " as to proving Death to be " no Evil, upon the Supposition of nothing " future, he might do as he pleased: But for " himself, he should never let go his Hold of "Immortality." " A. Ut videtur : fed me ne-" mo de immortalitate depellet." Tully (or M.) answers; " Laudo id quidem : etsi nibil animis " oportet confidere: movemur enim sæpe aliquo " acute concluso: labamus mutamusque senten-" tiam clarioribus etiam in rebus: in bis est enim aliqua obscuritas. Id igitur si acciderit, " fimus armati." The young Man replies; " Very well: But he would however take Care " that no fuch Alteration should happen in his " Sentiments." " A. Sane quidem : fed ne ac-" cidat providebo." Tully then asks him, "Whether there was any Reason why they " should in this Case take any Notice of the " Stoics (those of them) who held the Soul " would indeed furvive the Body for fome " Time, but not always." And it being granted, that there was no Reason, Tully then digresses to refute the Opinion and Arguments of Panætius, who, though a Platonist, differed from his Master in this Point of the Immortality of the Soul *. But this being here a mere Digreffion

[•] Upon this Occasion I cannot omit asking: Since Tully fays,

Digreffion he checks himself and fays, " Sed " quid agimus? oblitine sumus, hoc nunc nobis
" esse propositum, cum satis de æternitate dixisse-" mus, ne, si interirent quidem animi, quidquam " mali esse in morte." The young Man anfwers to this: " That as to himself, he re-" membered very well the Subject proposed, " but was very willing to hear him running " away from it, and discoursing farther con-" cerning the Immortality of the Soul." "A. " Ego vero memineram, sed te de æternitate di-" centem aberrare à proposito facile patiebar."-Now with this is immediately connected the first Part of Mr. Warburton's Quotation. For thus Tully goes on: " I fee, fays he, your Views " are raifed very high; and you would go " from hence to the Gods." "Yes, fays the " other, I wish and hope it may so fall out to " us.—But methinks, upon that Supposition " of the Soul's dying with the Body, we are " at least deprived of the pleasing Hope of a bet-" ter Life." " What then? answers Tully; " Does that Opinion of the Soul's dying with " the Body imply any real Evil? For suppose " the Soul should die with the Body, will the

fays, that Panætius, Plato's Disciple, thought fit to differ from his Master in this Point of the Immortality of the Soul; what did Tully mean when he observed this? Was it at all his Meaning, that Panætius differed from Plato concerning the Soul's being taken from the Substance of God, and it's being to be reinfused into the same Substance again? Or, must not Tully be understood to speak of the proper distinct Existence of the Soul, after it's Separation from the Body? Is it possible to be at a Loss in which of these Senses to understand him? Look into Tully, and a Moment's Doubt will be impossible.

" Body,

" Body, in that Cafe, have any uneafy Sen-" fations? Or, can we suppose, that after " Death there still remains any Sense at all in " the Body? No one fays this; (though Epicu-" rus would charge Democritus with such an " Abfurdity; but all his Followers deny it.) " And in the Soul there can be no Sensation; " for, by the Supposition, it is not in being. " Where then is this Evil? A third Hypothe-" fis cannot be made—" Tully's Words are thefe. " Fac enim fic animum interire ut cor-" pus: num igitur aliquis doler, aut omnino post " mortem sensus in corpore est? Nemo id quidem " dicit; etsi Democritum insimulat Epicurus: " Democritici negant. Ne in animo quidem " (igitur) sensus remanet: ipse enim nusquam " eft. Ubi igitur malum est? quoniam nibil ter-

" tium est-"

The latter Part of Mr. Warburton's Quotation is in Tully, at too great a Distance from the furst, (now considered) to be connected in the same Manner as has been done with that. I shall therefore only say, that Tully proceeds to illustrate this Position, viz. that, supposing Death to be the utter Extinction of us, "it is "yet rather to be looked upon as a Blessing, "than an Evil." This he does from Observation and Example of the Miseries of the present Life; to all which Death will put as certain an End, as it does to our Being. And whereas it might be objected, "but Death, at the same time it frees us from the Evils of Life, robs us likewise of the Blessings of it;

" and it must be miserable to want these."-Tully goes on to observe, " How absurd and " unintelligible it is to fay, he can want any " thing, who himself is nothing." This Thought, and, if you will, the Manner of Expression, he dwells upon, and confiders in a great many Lights; and, to illustrate how quite absurd it is to fay, concerning fuch as are dead, and have no Sense of any thing, that they can want any thing, even to Life itself. He observes, even concerning the living, that they may have a Sense of their not having many Things, and yet cannot, with any Propriety or Meaning, be faid to want them. Thus, though a Man finds he has neither Horns nor Wings, no body fays, that he wants them; fince these and such like Things are not adapted to him, either by Use or Nature. " Quia cum id non habeas, quod tibi nec " usu, nec natura sit aptum, non careas, etiamsi " sentias te non habere"-

Then immediately follows the latter Part of Mr. Warburton's Quotation, and which we are now confidering: "Hoc premendum etiam at"que etiam est argumentum, consirmato illo, de
"quo, si mortales animi sunt, dubitare non pos"sumus, quin tantus interitus in morte sit, ut ne
"minima quidem suspicio sensus relinquatur."
That is, "This Argument must be insisted
"upon, and urged home; the other thing being granted and fixed, which cannot possibly
be denied, viz. that if the Soul itself is mortal, there must in Death be so thorough a
"Destruction of all Sense, that not so much as

"a Shadow, or Suspicion of any remains." After which he goes on in the farther Pursuit of his Argument, to shew how utterly impossible and absurd it is to say, that the Soul, after it has been by Death deprived of all Sense, can want any thing. And whereas it may be said, "But this very Thing, viz. to be without "Sense, to be deprived or bereaved of it, is in

"itself hateful," he observes finally, "That

" it would indeed be hateful, if there was any " want of it: But fince it is absolutely clear,

"that nothing can be in him, who is himself "nothing; nothing can be hateful in or to him,

" who himself neither wants nor feels."

Now what there is in all this, that comments fo clearly upon the Passages cited out of the Epiftles, must be left to others to judge. There Tully fays, or feems to fay, " That Death de-" prives us of all Sense:" Here he only considers, " what may be faid to beget in us a Con-" tempt of Death, on the Supposition, that the " Soul itself dies with the Body." And what he fays is this; "That in that Case all it's Sen-" fations and Wants must be at an End; and " confequently no Evil remains." But if any one shall suspect, that Tully talks here in the least otherwise than merely hypothetically, or at all according to his own absolute Judgment, let him read the former part of this Differtation, and he will think otherwise; especially, that Argument which Tully translates from the Phadrus of Plato; beginning thus: " Quod fem-" per movetur, æternum eft, &c." c. 23. and follows

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follows it with this Encomium; "Licet con"currant plebeii omnes Philosophi (sic enim ii,
"qui à Platone & Socrate, & ab illa familia
"dissident, appellandi videntur) non modo nibil
"unquam tam eleganter explicabunt, sed nec boc
"quidem ipsum, quam subtiliter conclusium sit, in-

" telligent."

And this reminds me of one Observation more, with which I shall conclude this Head, viz. That whereas Mr. Warburton several times tells us, that Socrates and Plato were not in the same Way of thinking with Relation to the Soul, it's Immortality, Tully here (as well as in other Parts of his Works, and even in this Disputation too) plainly infinuates, nay tells us the contrary; and calls all those who differed from them and their Sect in this Point (for so Tully is most naturally to be understood) Plebeii Philosophi, Vulgar Philosophers.

VIII.

I shall now turn back to a very remarkable Passage from Livy, quoted by Mr. Warburton, p. 167, 168. who is here endeavouring to account for the extreme Corruption of the Mysteries; which made it at last necessary to abolish them every where.

"The third and last Cause, which he men"tions, of this Corruption, was, the Celebra"tors of them withdrawing themselves from
"the Care and Inspection of the Civil Magis"trate." An Instance of which is this Story
from the Roman Historian; of a little Priest,
who of his own Head brought the Mysteries of
Bac-

Bacchus into Etruria; from whence in Time they reached Rome; and in both Places produced the wretched Effects, so emphatically de-

fcribed by the Historian *. Mr. Warburton fays, " The Words of Livy " shew, that the Mysteries were in their own " Nature, quite another Thing; and invented " for the Improvement of Knowledge and Vir-" tue:" For the Proof of which Reflection, he cites the following Passage; and it is the only one brought in support of it. " Gracus " ignobilis in Etruriam primum venit, nulla cum " arte earum, quas multas ad animorum corpo-" rumque cultum nobis eruditissima omnium gens " invexit, sed Sacrificulus & Vates." Which Mr. Warburton translates thus: " A Greek, of " mean Extraction, a little Priest and Sooth-" fayer, came first into Etruria, without any " Skill or Wisdom in mysterious Rites, many " Sorts of which that most improved People " hath brought in among us for the Culture " and Perfection both of Mind and Body."

To this Manner of rendering the Historian's Words, and representing his Sense, the following Objections may be justly made. " Gracus " ignobilis" is not, a Greek of mean Extraction, but, an obscure Greek; a Greek of no Note or Fame for any thing commendable: On the contrary, as the Historian goes on; "he had "none of those Arts, or had no Skill in any " of those Arts, which the Greeks had invent-" ed for the Improvement both of Body and

^{*} Livy, Hift. L. 39. c. 8-14.

[&]quot; Mind."

" Mind." And this is faid by way of Contrast to his real Character; which was diminutive enough, and immediately follows, in two Words; " Sed Sacrificulus & Vates;" rendered very well by Mr. Warburton, a little Priest and . Soothfayer. And when the Historian had said this, he feems plainly to have thought, little more was necessary to explain his Character, and that every one would prefently guess what was to be expected from so worthy a Person. Therefore it was not well in Mr. Warburton, to place this Character of the Greek, in his Translation, before the Historian's 'Account of his Ignorance in the polite Arts of his own Country: Since, if it had been so placed in the Original, Livy must have been guilty of a Fault in Writing, which he is as little chargeable with as most Authors. It would have been very fuperfluous, after telling us, that he was a little Priest and Soothsayer, to have added, that he was likewise ignorant and unskilled in the Arts for which Greece was most famous. And accordingly we see, he has done just the contrary, and made, " Sed Sacrificulus & Vates," the Contrast to a Man skilled in the Arts by which Greece had been so useful to itself and other Countries; Italy in particular.

But this brings in another Exception to Mr. Warburton's Translation of this Passage; and which will make the first, I think, more easily allowed of. To every unprejudiced Person, that reads this Passage in Livy, it will presently appear, that by the Arts which the Historian

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here speaks of, and commends Greece for the Invention and Cultivation of, improving and perfective of both Mind and Body, many of which had by this Time been carried as far as Rome, he means their Improvements in Knowledge of all Kinds; Philosophy, Politics, Oratory, Poetry, Mufick, Architecture, Painting, Statuary, Medicine, Surgery, the Gymnastic Exercises, &c. Many of these the Romans had by this Time received from Greece, by Means of their Expeditions into that Country. For the Time we are now speaking of was even fubsequent to the Expedition which the Romans made against Antiochus. - But how does Mr. Warburton understand these Arts, mentioned by Livy upon this Occasion? Why, he refers them all, without Exception, to the Mysteries. For fo his Translation runs-" without any " Skill or Wisdom in mysterious Rites, many " Sorts of which, that most improved People " hath brought in among us, for the Culture " and Perfection both of Mind and Body." Nothing is more easy than to say how, or in what Sense, many of the Grecian Arts were intended for the Improvement of the Body, and the Enlargement of the fenfible Enjoyments of Life: But it is not so easy, surely, on the contrary, very difficult, to shew what Relation mysterious Rites (in their original Purity) had to the Body, whatever they might have to the Mind.—Another Thing likewise will be very difficult to do, viz. whereas Livy expressly says, that many of these Arts had been already by the Greeks

Greeks brought in among the Romans, " quas " multas-eruditissima gens invexit," to shew, that any mysterious Rites at all had been carried thither before this Expedition of the little Priest to Italy. If I be not much mistaken, this little Priest was the very first that came from Greece to Italy, upon such a Design, and with such Business; and the Manner of Livy's Relation would lead any one to think, these Bacchanalian Mysteries might be the very first, that were known at Rome. Besides; it is very hard to fee, how it was possible for Mr. Warburton to put fuch a Construction, as he has done, upon the Words of Livy. Supposing the Historian could have reckoned the Mysteries a Grecian Art, he could not reckon them the Sum total of the Arts of Greece, nor the only Arts by which Greece had profited Rome at this Time. How came Mr. Warburton then to imagine, that the many Arts, which Livy speaks of, were only the several Sorts of mysterious Rites? -Laftly; common Grammar should have suggested a different Sense of this Passage. " Nul-" la cum arte earum" sc. rerum; or, nulla cum " arte earum," for, cum nulla earum artium---" quas multas ad animorum, &c." Rituum, or Mysteriorum, will neither of them stand in this Sentence. And to every unprejudiced Mind, it must be plain, the Historian does not accuse this Man of Unskilfulness in the Mysteries, or Ignorance of his Trade, but absolute Unacquaintedness with any and every really useful Art in Life. In short, the Character of this Priest

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and Soothfayer, as it stands in Livy, is, that of a mean, obscure, ignorant Fellow, who had nothing but his Mysteries to import into Italy.

By this time, perhaps, Mr. Warburton may fee how little Reason he had to appeal to this Passage in Livy, for the good Intention and Purity of these Bacchanalian Mysteries in their Original. For Livy does not so much as by the most distant Hint concern himself with the original Institution of them. Let them have been ever so much better in their Beginning than in their Progress; let them have been invented ever so certainly, and with Judgment, for the Improvement of Knowledge and Virtue; Livy must not be appealed to for the Truth of this; because he is silent upon this Head. But,

Mr. Warburton's next Observation upon this Story, Livy will not countenance fo much as by his Silence; but expresses himself to a very contrary Purpose. " It is farther observable, " fays he, that this Priest brought the Myste-" ries pure with him into Italy, and that they " received their Corruption there."-For the Truth of which, he appeals to Hispala's Story to the Conful: and all the Evidence (taken Notice of by him) is, her telling the Conful, that at first Women only celebrated the Rites. It might have been farther observed, that according to her Account, the Rites were celebrated only by Day-light, and Women only prefided as Priestesses, chosen among themselves, by Turns; and more, that the Mysteries were celebrated but feldom; only three Times a Year, upon

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upon certain Days *. - But how little Evidence all these Things, put together, will afford, that the Priest brought the Mysteries pure with him into Italy, may appear from many Considerations. It cannot be supposed, this Priest had any Thought of bringing the Mysteries into Italy in greater Purity than that in which they were celebrated in his own Country. And there they were not only celebrated in the Night (a Circumstance +, as generally and neceffarily attending the Mysteries of every Sort, as any other that can eafily be mentioned;) but likewise without any Distinction or Separation of the Sexes. And, as to the Numbers admitted at any Time to celebrate these Mysteries together, nothing limited that, but the Inclinations of the People: As many as would were always received, and fometimes even Force was used to increase the Company. The greater

* Tres in anno statos dies habuisse, quibus interdiu Bacchis ini-

tiarentur; sacerdotes invicem matronas creari solitas.

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⁺ It was this Circumstance that disgusted Tully so much at the Mysteries in general, and obliged him to insert in the first Law, " Nocturna mulierum sacrificia ne sunto-" In his Comment upon this Particular, he hints, plainly enough, how well it would be, if such a Law obtained in all Nations: He takes Notice too upon this Occasion, of the Severity with which the Senate animadverted upon these Bacchanalian Mysteries, in the Time of their Ancestors, agreeably to Livy's Account here; and, lastly, to prevent the Charge of Singularity and Moroséness in this Conduct, he observes, that Diagondas, the Theban, was in the same Sentiment with himself; and, even in the Middle of Greece, absolutely prohibited all nocturnal Sacrifices. " Quo in genere severitatem majorum Senatus ve-" tus auctoritas de Bacchanalibus, &, Consulum exercitu adbibito, " quæstio animadversioque declarat. Atque omnia nocturna, ne " nos duriores forte videamur, in media Gracia Diagondas The-" banus lege perpetua suffulit." De Legib. L. 2. c. 15.

the Number was, the more they countenanced one another; and likewise (which was a principal and very natural Effect) mutually inspired one another with the greater enthusiastic Fury. Such Fury, or Frenzy, was, eminently, the Effect of these Bacchanalian Rites; as appears from all the Accounts and Memorials of them we meet with any where: And we shall presently have a remarkable Example of it from Herodotus.

Now with fuch Purity as this, we may suppose, and allow, this Priest might bring these Mysteries into Italy; and, even from the Historian's Account, we are not at Liberty to allow

any more.

And here it must be observed farther, that Mr. Warburton is in the wrong to attempt proving the Purity of these Rites as they came into Italy, from the Relation which Hispala gives of the State of them upon their Arrival at Rome. For, as they were first brought to Tufcany by the little Priest, the only Way to know in what Condition they were at their Arrival in Italy from Greece, or in what Manner they came out of the Priest's Hands, is to consider the Effect of them in their first Station. We do not know the little Priest ever was at Rome; nor do we know how long it was (it might be some Years) before these Mysteries reached Rome. Indeed, the Historian resembles them to a Plague; the Infection of which at last fpread itself to Rome *. But I am not appre-

henfive,

^{*} Hujus mali labes ex Etruria Romam, velut contagione morbis penetravit.

hensive, that any body will, upon the Strength of so disagreeable a Similitude, argue for the quick Passage of them any whither.

Let us then confider the State of them in

Tuscany, where they first arrived.

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We left the Historian above giving the Character of the Greek, who brought these Mysteries into Italy ; An obscure Fellow, -fraught with no uleful Art of Greece, -a diminutive Priest and Soothsayer.—Let him now proceed: "But though a Priest, he was not one of those, " who publickly professing their Business, en-" deavour to strike Men's Minds with Reve-" rence and Dread by any open Species of Re-" ligion *." What was he then? why, " he " professed and was President over certain " fecret Rites: They were Mysteries-+" Every one that reads the Original here, must presently observe, in what Manner the Historian expresses himself with Relation to this Priest and his Business: Displeasure and Contempt are equally blended in almost every Word and Syllable.

But he next proceeds to the actual Communication of these Mysteries to the Etrurians. "At first they were communicated but to a "small Number." Whether these were Men only, or Women only, is not said. "But presently the Numbers were increased, and a great many, both Men and Women, were

+ Sed occultorum Antistes sacrorum : Initia erant.

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^{*} Nec is qui aperta religione propalam & quastum & disciplinam prositendo, animos borrore imbueret.—

initiated into them. And the Pleasures of "Wine and Feafting, joined with the Ceremonies, were the Bait, by which the greatest Part were to be drawn in and ensnared *." And what followed immediately upon this, the Historian tells us in the next Place, and gives a most lively Description of the Enormities which these poor Wretches ran into without Remorfe, and without Bounds; which I shall throw into the Margin, without translating it, as Mr. Warburton has done by the almost equally emphatical Description which Hispala gives of the terrible Effects of these Mysteries, when they reached Rome: Only the learned Reader will observe, here are some Enormities mentioned, which Hispala has taken no Notice of +.

If then, we either consider in what State these Mysteries were in Greece at this Time of Day, and long before, or attend to what the Historian says was the Effect of them immediately upon their being brought to Tuscany, and before they reached Rome, we cannot but see

^{*} Primo paucis tradita; deinde vulgari cæpta per viros mulieresque additæ voluptates religioni vini & epularum, quo plurium avimi illicerentur.

[†] Quum vinum animos & nox & misti sæminis mares, ætatis teneræ majoribus, discrimen omne pudoris extinxissent, corruptelæ primum omnis generis steri cæptæ; quum ad id quisque quo natura pronioris libidinis esset paratam voluptatem baberet. Nec unum genus noxæ, stupra promiscua ingenuorum sæminarumque erant; sed falsi testes, salsa signa, testimoniaque & judicia ex eadem officina exibant. Venena indidem, intestinæque cædes, ita ut ne corpora quidem interdum ad sepulturam extarent. Multa dolo, pleraque per vim audebantur. Occulebat vim, quod præ ululatibus tympanorumque & cymbalorum strepitu nulla vox quiritantium inter stupra & cædes exaudiri poterat.

how intirely without Reason it must be to conclude the Purity of them, merely because Hispala tells the Conful, " that at first Women on-" ly were initiated into them, and prefided o-" ver them." Women were as capable as others, to fay the leaft, of working themselves up into an enthusiastic Frenzy; and then, equally incapable of judging what they ought, or ought not, to do. And whoever reads the Account of a female Bacchus among the Greeks, or fees the Representation of one in Sculpture, or Statuary-work in Pieces of Antiquity; or, laftly, attends to the Manner of Clodius's Discovery, when he attempted the Violation of the Mysteries of the Bona Dea, will be abundantly fenfible of the extreme Nothingness of such an Argument.

It may indeed be easily granted, that while the Mysteries were thus confined among the Females; while none presided, and none were initiated but of that Sex; and while they were celebrated too only in the Day-time, and this but seldom; they were not capable of producing so many violent Disorders as they afterwards did. But then, it must, on the other hand, be observed too, that none of these Circumstances were Grecian Instances of the Purity of these Rites. Because nothing is more certain, as was before observed, than that none of these Limitations attended the Celebration of these

Mysteries in Greece.

However, it was not long before these Roman Women were under the full Influence of the

God, whose Mysteries they celebrated; and Paculla Minia Campana, who happened to prefide at that Time, initiated, by the special Direction of the God, her two Sons into the Mysteries; and of a diurnal, made it a nocturnal Affembly; (both which indeed she might very well have done, without any special Commission; fince it was thus every where elfe, and particularly in Greece;) and farther, for three Times in the Year, appointed five Days in every Month for celebrating the Mysteries. By this last Alteration effectual Care was taken, that the initiated should never be cool enough to admit of much Reflection, and the religious Fury being continued from one Affembly to another, was by that Means necessarily increased; and it need be no wonder the poor Creatures, under fuch Influence, should be hurried beyond all Bounds.

How quick the Infection spread, so as in a Manner to become general, appears from Hispala's Confession; "that they were become a "vast Multitude, and indeed, almost another "People *." And it appears, the Consul was so struck with her Relation, as also with what he himself had learnt otherways upon a little farther Enquiry, that he judged it necessary to lay the Affair immediately before the Senate. And the Senate itself appears to have been as much alarmed upon the Occasion, as if another Hannibal bad been at the Gates; and therefore directly committed to the Consuls an extraordi-

^{*} Multitudinem ingentem, alterum jam prope populum effe.

nary Power to " Enquire into the Bacchanolian

" and all nocturnal Mysteries +." and all no

Mr. Warburton limits this Decree to the Bacchanalian Mysteries only, and says, it did not extend to the Mysteries in general; they being of too important Use to the State to be parted with ob unius delictum, p. 169. What it was that could lead him to this Reflection, it is impoffible to fay: But fure I am, that Livy's Account is fo far from countenancing it, that it is directly the contrary. What he may mean by Mysteries in general, is not easy to say: But it is very hard to fay, what particular Mysteries those were, which the Senate would, or did, except out of the Law of Abolition, as being of important Use to the State: And yet hardest of all would it be to shew, that the Senate in any Age of the Commonwealth had at all declared itself in Favour of any Sort of them whatsosoever, " as being really in themselves useful to " the State." On the contrary; it is plain, the Decree of the Senate gave the Confuls Power to inquire into, not only the Bacchanalian, but all Sorts of Mysteries whatsoever: " De Bac-" chanalibus sacrisque nocturmis." The Confuls themselves plainly understood it in the very largest Sense; and therefore gave it in Charge to the Plebeian Ediles, to fee "that no Myste-" ries were celebrated any where *;" and to the Triumviri Capitales, " that there were no " nocturnal Affemblies upon any Account

⁺ De Bacchanalibus facrifque nocturnis.

^{*} Ne qua facra in operto fierent.

whatfoever +." The fame Thing farther appears, from the Speech which the Confuls made to the Affembly of the People, presently after baving given these necessary Orders to the inferior Magistrates. The Conful that spoke, took Occasion from the Prayer, which usually preceded these more solemn Orations, to obferve, " that the Gods they had been just ad-" dreffing to, were the Gods whom their An-" ceftors had taught them to worship upon all " Occasions; and not those, who with corrupt and foreign Rites first drove their Worshippers " into Madness, and then, into all Manner of " Wickedness *." -- He afterwards observes. that their Ancestors had taken all imaginable " Care to keep out all external Rites whatfoever; by excluding from their City, in the strictest Manner, all those rambling Priests and Sooth-Ayers, facrificules vatefque - and by pro-" hibiting every Manner of facrificing, that was not, more Romano, according to the Roman Custom and Ritual. For, fays he, those wifest of Men, who understood so well both divine and human Right, thought nothing could to enfeeble Religion, as the fuffering "People to faerifice, non patrio sed externo ritu, not after the Manner of their Forefathers, but " fome new and foreign Form ||." - Then he

Ne qui necturni carus fierent.

—bos esse deos, quos colere, venerari, precarique majores vestri instituissent: non illos, qui pravis & externis religionibus captas mentes velut surialibus stimulis ad omne scelus & ad omnem libidinem agerent.

Quoties hoc patrum avorumque atate negotium est magistratibus

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tells them, "that he had mentioned these "Things beforehand, for this Purpose among others; that no vain Fears might affect their Minds, when they should see the Magistrates destroying the Bacchanalian Mysteries, and breaking up all clandestine unlawful Assemment blies whatsoever §." And in a Word, there can be no Doubt, but it was owing to this Decree, and the vigorous Execution of it, that Rome continued for so many Years, even down to the Time of Livy and Dian. Halicannassense (for his Testimony will be likewise presently produced) so free, as it did, from mysterious Rites of all Kinds.

The Passage in Herodotus above taken Notice of, is in the 4th Book, c. 78, &c. and contains a very memorable Account of a royal Initiation into the Mysteries of Bacchus, with the unlucky Consequences of it. The Historian observing concerning the Scythians, how utterly averse they were to, and how much upon their Guard against all foreign religious Rites and Customs, whether publick or private; but those of Greece especially (to which they seem to have had a peculiar Antipathy); proceeds to confirm what he says, by two Examples, viz. of Anacharsis

tibus datum, ut sacra externa sieri vetarent? Sacrificulos vatesque foro, circo, urbe prohiberent? omnem disciplinam sacrificandi, praterquam more Romano, abolerent? Judicabant enim prudentissimi viri omnis divini humanique juris, nihil æque dissolvenda religionis esse, quam ubi, non patrio, sed externo, ritu sacrificanetur.

Hac vobis pradicenda ratus sum, ne superstitio agitaret animos vestros, quum demossientes nos Bacchanalia, discutientesque nefarios catus cerneretis.

the Philosopher, and Scyles one of their Kings. The Philosopher it seems, in his return from his Travels to his own Country, touching at Cyzicum, found the People there celebrating with great Pomp the Mysteries of the Bona Dea, or the Mother of the Gods. With which he was fo much taken, that unhappily forgetting the Temper of his Countrymen, he vowed, if he got fafe Home, he would immediately celebrate there the same Mysteries *. Accordingly he no fooner arrived, but he fet himself to the Performance of his Vow; and being caught in the Fact, the Prince shot him dead upon the Spot.

But the other Instance is more remarkable, and much more distinctly related by the Historian. It is that of Scyles, one of their Kings: Who having had a Grecian Woman for his Mother, was instructed betimes in the Greek Language, and very early got a Relish for the Grecian Manners and Customs. Which Taste he was afterwards so far from losing, that he daily improved it more and more, by indulging himself in the Initiation of them. This was what he took every Opportunity of doing; though with fome Privacy and Caution, for fear of his People; who, he well knew, would never give him a Toleration for it. But, in order to indulge himself with more Freedom, and at the same Time with greater Security, he often marched his Army towards the Boristhenites (who pretended to be a Greek Colony); and there, leaving his Scythians behind him at some Distance

 [–] Βύσιν τι κατά ταῦτα – κ) φανυχίδα τήσιν.

from the Town, went himself into it, and gave a free Course to his Inclinations for the Habits, Manners and Customs of all Kinds, civil and religious, of the Greeks. And for his better Accommodation in these his Retirements from the Scythians (which were very frequent, and would last sometimes a Month, or even longer) he built himself a House there in the Manner,

and with the Decorations, of the Greeks.

At Length he, had an extraordinary Impulse to be initiated into the Mysteries of Bacchus *. Accordingly he was so; and with all the Effect that could be. For immediately upon Initiation his Brain was turned, and he became as errant a Madman for a Time, as any Bacchans of them all. The Boristhenites being, as it seems, wonderfully pleased with seeing a Scythian, and a Scythian King, under such Instuence of their God, one of them presently ran with the News to the Army, and told them; "You have often "ridiculed our Mysteries, but come with me" and I will shew you the Effect of them upon "your own Prince +."

Some of the principal Officers went, and having, not without the utmost Surprize and contemptuous Indignation, seen the Truth of what was told them, returned immediately and made their Report to the Army. Which refented the Matter to such a Degree, that they presently deposed the King; and not long after

^{*} ἐπιθύμησε Διονύσω Βακχείω τιλεσθήναι.
† νῦν ἔτο ὁ Δάιμων κὰ τὸν ὑμέτεςον βασιλέα λελάδηκε καὶ βακχεύει
κὰ ὑπὸ τὰ θεῦ μάινείαι.

(it seems he sted for it) they punished him with Death. The evil and violent Effect of these Mysteries upon the Brains of the Initiated, appears from the Reflection which the Scythians made upon it. Who, for this very Realon; rebroached the Greeks with these Bacchanalian Rites; and argued, how impossible it was, that he should be a God, who thus drove Men into Madness *.

And fince in the Quotations above, so many of them have related to the Mysteries (which Mr. Warburton calls the most facred Part of Pagan Religion) give me Leave just to mention the Opinion of a well qualified and credible Historian concerning them in general, and I will close this first Part. It is that of Dionysius Halicarnassensis ||; who speaking of Romulus tells us; " He cannot but admire him, among " many other Things, for the just Sentiments " he had concerning the Gods, and the Care " he took about the publick Religion. Which was indeed his first Care. For this Purpose " he built Temples and Altars, appointed Festivals and proper Sacrifices: And here he fol-" lowed what he judged to be the best Customs " and Practices of Greece. But as for the pro-" fane or idle Stories of the Gods, which ob-" tained among the Greeks and other Nations, " he rejected them all. Such as that of Calus's " being castrated by his Children; Saturn's de-

Antiq. Rom. 1. 2. c. 18, 19, 20.

" vouring

^{*} Σπόθαι δε το βακχέυειν σερί ελλησι όνειδίζοσι ο γάρ φάσι είads elvas Oedr efengionem ซอซาง อัรเร ผลังเองิลเ ยาล์ทูเเ ล้าอิยุพัทธร.

" vouring his, for Fear of like injurious Treat-" ment from them; or Jupiter's imprisoning " his Father in Tartarus, Among the Romans " nothing is heard of the Wars of the Gods, " their Wounds, Chains, or being in Servitude " to Men: They have no Days of Mourning " and Lamentation for Violences offered to the "Gods, like those among the Greeks, for the " Rape of Proserpine, the Misfortune of Becu " chus, or any Thing of fuch a Nature. And " (though indeed, it must be owned, the Man-" ners of the Romans are, by this Time, some " what depraved; yet) one shall not hear of, or " fee among them any hair-brained Fanatics, " the Wildnesses of the Corybantes, clandestine " Assemblies, Bacchanals, SECRET MYSTERIES " (τελετας απορρήτες), or nocturnal Vigils kept " in the Temples by Men and Women pro-" miscuously, or any other monstrous Practice " of a like Kind *; which are fo common a-" mong Greeks and Barbarians .- But, not-" withstanding (though I cannot but commend " the Romans on these and other like Accounts) " I would not be thought ignorant that forme "Good may lie at the Bottom of some of the " Greek Fables, and some Usefulness attend them. " Some of them may allegorically represent " certain Effects and Phænomena of Nature: " Others may instruct how to bear the Calami-" ties of Life: Some may be calculated to cure " the Mind of vain Terrors and unfound Opi-" nions: And others may be useful in other

^{* —} ἐκ ἄλλο τῶν παςαπλησίων τέτους τεςατευμάτων έδεν.—

Ι « Respects.

" Respects. But yet, though I know these " Things as well as any Man, as I am myfelf " upon my Guard against Things of this Na-" ture, I cannot but much more approve the " Roman Theology; recollecting how little the " Good is, in itself considered, which is gain-" ed from the Grecian Fables, and how nar-" rowly, or to how few, it is confined. For " they can be of Service to none but fuch as " can enter into the Reasons for which such " Fables were originally composed. And as " these are but few, the rest, who are exceed-"ingly more numerous, always understand " these Fables in a wrong Sense; and learn " from thence either to despise the Gods, or " else to imitate them in the worst Practices a-" fcribed to them."

The Reader cannot fail, I think, of observing, how much this Account of the Grecian Fables and Mysteries resembles, and at the same Time supports, what Tully and Cotta say above, in the Passages cited out of the first Tusculan and the Nature of the Gods; and he will likewise be the better prepared to understand thoroughly a Passage which will be hereafter cited from Macrobius, relating to the Mysteries.

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PART II.

Mr. WARBURTON'S Manner of Reasoning.

LERE I propose to take a much larger Compass, and consider Mr. Warburton's Manner of Reasoning, not merely in the occasional or incidental Parts of his Book, but in those, that relate to, and more or less affect the Truth of the two Propositions, to which this first Volume of the Divine Legation of, &c. is confined.

I.

And I begin with his Manner of proving the first Proposition, viz. " That the inculcating " the Doctrine of a future State of Rewards " and Punishments is necessary to the Well-" being of civil Society;" from the Imperfection of civil Society with Regard to that Power which it wants, p. 14. He has just before been treating briefly of it's Imperfection, with Regard to that Power which it has. And this is the Power which he had inlarged upon in his Alliance. But it feems, there is a Power, which civil Society is destitute of, and yet is absolutely necesfary to it's Support. The Confideration of this Power did not enter into the Alliance; and as the present Remarks are not intended to be concerned at all with that Performance, I shall only confider what Mr. Warburton fays concerning

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this latter Power, in order to see what Support

it will give to his Proposition.

All that Mr. Warburton fays upon this Head, (so far as he appears to be right) might have been comprised in a very narrow Compass. The Violences exercised in a State of Nature, were what drove Mankind into civil Societies: The End therefore of civil Establishments, was to preserve Peace in the Preservation of natural Right and Property.—Therefore, again, the primary and chief Business of the Legislature every where must be to make Laws, for the Security of natural Right and Property, that no one should violate them : i.e. These Laws must be negative; " Ne quis fur esset, neu latro, neu " quis adulter." And concerning these, it is plain, that without the Sanction of a Penalty on the Violators of them, they are nothing: And with it, as it is proportioned and adapted, they may have all the Force of Laws, or all the Force necessary to secure Obedience. But as for particular, positive Rewards, (which, according to Mr. Warburton, are the Power which Society has not, and yet cannot subsist without,) these are not necessary; as well because the Penalty annexed is fufficient to fecure Obedience in general (if rightly adjusted, and steadily executed on the particular Offenders); as also because Protection and Security do immediately and univerfally follow the steady Observance of these Laws.

Such negative Laws are the most original and most fundamental Laws of all States. For suppose

suppose but Obedience to these, and any State may fubfift; without it, it cannot. Positive Laws therefore are not immediately necessary, and should never be made, but with great Caution and upon very urgent Occasion. And as to these, it is plain, when they respect the whole Community, positive Rewards cannot be found for every one. Protection and a Participation of the Good, naturally arifing from fuch Laws, must always attend Obedience to them, and be, ordinarily, a fufficient Recompence for it. But as the Confideration and Prospect of these may not always be effectual to secure Obedience, it is necessary that a Penalty be annexed to deter those who might otherwise be tempted, by some private finister Views, to neglect them.

This, I think, is agreeable to the Practice of all States, the Notions of most, or all Writers in Politicks, and the Sentiments of the Generality of Mankind. And, though in a general and popular Way it is usual to say, "The "Sanctions of all Laws are Rewards and Pu-"nishments;" and, that these are the two "Hinges upon which civil Government turns;" if by Rewards be meant particular, positive Encouragements, as by Punishments are meant particular, positive Penalties, it is not strictly true. And I cannot but wonder Mr. Warburton should so far come into it, as to subjoin immediately; "And so far is certain and apparent to the com-

" mon Sense of Mankind, that whatever Laws
" are not inforced by both these Sanctions, will
F 2 " never

" never be observed in any Degree sufficient to " carry on the Ends of Society." Ibid. I fufpect a latent Meaning in those Words, in a Degree sufficient to carry on the Ends of Society. For he goes on in the very next Paragraph to deny, that however necessary the Sanction of Rewards may be to secure the Observance of human Laws, This Sanction was or could be inforced by civil Government for the Observance of it's Laws: And what is stranger still, he will shew this, " from the true and original Consti-" tution of civil Government, and from the "Nature of Society." p. 15. By the Way; what Language is that, " of inforcing a Sanc-" tion:" Inforcing Laws by Sanctions is common and intelligible. But what is, inforcing a Sanction? Can a Sanction want Inforcement? No otherwise than as a Thing can want itself. Such Language therefore is neither common nor intelligible: Yet it is used here many Times over.

Mr. Warburton is apprehensive, this will be "looked upon as a violent Paradox; nothing being more common in the Mouths of Men, "than that the Sanctions of Rewards and Pu-"nishments are the two Pillars of civil Govern-"ment."—Ibid. The Thing in itself considered, viz. that the Sanction of positive and particular Rewards is not necessary to human Laws, is no Paradox; and I think, there is no Body of a different Sentiment. But there may be something strange enough in the Author's Manner of expressing and treating of it. He pursues

purfues what he has undertaken, and will prove,

very particularly,

1. That by the true and original Constitution of civil Government, the Sanction of Rewards was not inforced. Ibid. I am afraid, the Meaning of this Proposition will not be understood, unless it be this, " That to add the Sanction " of Rewards, along with that of Punish-" ments, to civil Laws, is not agreeable to the " true and original Conftitution of civil Govern-" ment:" And if this be it, let us fee how it is made out. " In entering into Society, fays " he, it was stipulated between the Governor " and Governed, that Protection and Obedi-" ence should be the reciprocal Conditions of each other. When therefore a Citizen obeys " the Laws, that Debt on Society is discharged " by the Protection it affords him. But in Re-" spect to Disobedience the Proceeding is not " analogous."—Ibid. Many Things may be observed here. Mr. Warburton is defective in his Account of what was stipulated. It was not merely Protection on one Side, and Obedience on the other: But, what was very defirable, it was agreed that good Laws should be made for the general Benefit of Society: And then, that those who obeyed them should have the Protection of the civil Power; those who disobeyed them should have-What? Why, Treatment according to the Nature of their Difobedience.

Now, it is plain, that a Citizen in obeying good Laws, is rewarded, not only with Pro-

tection, but likewise every Moment with the good Effects of his own Obedience: For the Laws, by the Supposition, tend to his Good; and Good then must be the immediate Consequence of Obedience. And it must be (and should have been much earlier than the Author does it) observed, that it is hardly possible in the Nature of Things, that more than this should be a Sanction of Reward to the Laws of a State: Because no State has particular Rewards of Riches, Places, Honours, &c. for all it's good Members. Matter feems necessarily wanting. Otherwise, it ought to be, and would be, applied. - But, fays he, in respect to Disobedience the Proceeding is not analogous .- Yes; it is analogous, supposing by Disobedience is meant, as is and must be meant before by Obedience; viz. what is general or universal. Such Disobedience is a formal renouncing the Society or Government. And where Obedience was never formally or virtually promifed, a Man is at Liberty to difregard the Laws of fuch Society or Government: And the only Confequence is a Refusal of it's Protection: Then, he either enters into some other, or lives at large, as in a State of Nature. If it be not general or univerfal Disobedience, then Protection is continued or withdrawn according to the Nature of the particular Offence. It may be equivalent to a total Disobedience; and, if it be so intended by the Offender, Expulsion and withdrawing the Protection feems to be the proper and adequate Punishment, whether the Man will confider milion.

fider it as fuch or not. The State that expels and withdraws it's Protection will, doubtless, confider it as a Punishment, and at the same Time fecure itself. Yet, if this Offender has (as it must be supposed he has) consented to live in the Society, as subject to it's Laws; has lived in it and enjoyed it's Protection; he must not think to get out of it by a notorious Act of Disobedience. After he has been thus guilty, he may indeed be glad to get out: But this can be only to avoid the Penalty due to his Crime according to the Laws. And if he pretends, that Expulsion from the Society was his View in committing the Fact: This can be no more than a Pretence; because there was a plainer and more innocent Way of coming at it; viz. by a formal Renunciation: Which should, I think, be univerfally admitted. -- In the other Way (which really is no Way of renouncing the Society) he is, and deservedly, liable to the Penalty provided for such Disobedience. If the Disobedience, (a particular Instance: So it must be understood) is of one who is a Member of the civil Society, and confequently one who is to be confidered as defiring still to live in it, Expulsion and a total withdrawing of Protection can very rarely be the proper Punishment; but, generally speaking, it must be, (or the Laws will appoint it to be) fome pecuniary Mulct or corporal Chastisement: i. e. Such a Penalty as may, with Respect to a continuing Member of Society, be justly and proangadier gald, the sont Fig. anomaling bably

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bably thought fufficient to overbalance the

Temptation to Disobedience.

It is rightly observed by Mr. Warburton, that Expulsion for every Offence, or withdrawing of Protection and exposing every offending Member to the License of the rest, would soon bring the State into a Consumption, or throw it into Convulfions. Therefore other Penalties were invented; fuch as pecuniary Mulets, Mutilation of Members, &c. Hence, says he, arose the Sanction, and only Sanction of civil Laws; meaning the Sanction of Punishment. And for this being the only Sanction he gives the following Reason: "For that Protection is no " Reward, in the Sense that these are Punish-" ments, is plain from hence, that the one is " of the Essence of Society itself, the other an " adventitious Adjunct." p. 16. This feems to be too much like playing with Words.— Surely, it will not be denied, that the Promise of Protection to obedient Subjects, is a Sanction of the Laws to be obeyed, (no Matter whether it is expressly mentioned in every Law); i. e. it is a Motive that may encourage Obedience; and especially, when it is added; that, Laws being made, as they ever ought to be, for the Good of the Society, the Members cannnot obey those Laws, and not at the fame Time feel and partake of the Benefit of them. And, though Protection is (as it is expressed) of the Effence of Society; he might have confidered, that the Protection of the Society is a vaftly different Thing from the Protection of a particular

cular Member of the Society; and though Society cannot fubfift without Protection, it may fubfift without the Protection of A, or any particular Member. For no particular Member is of the Effence of Society. And therefore, though Protection is of the Effence of Society, yet with Reference to any particular Member it is a mere Adjunct; or as merely adventitious as any Penalty can be. Consequently this Reason

" But, he fays, this will appear farther by " confidering the Opposite to Protection, Ex-" pulsion from the Society, or Banishment." -What will appear farther? Why, that Penalties are the only Sanction of civil Laws. " For this (Expulsion) is no Punishment, but " by Accident: And so the State understood " the Matter, as we may collect from the " Manner of employing it as a Punishment on " Offenders. For Banishment is of universal Every State does and will, (and must, while it retains any Opinion of itself and it's own Advantages,) look upon the Expulsion of a Member from it as an Evil inflicted on that Member. And it is no Evidence to the contrary, the obferving, that States generally still retain their Authority over the expelled Person: Since this is never done but in the Case of more than ordinary Guilt, and to heighten the Penalty of Banishment. For thus the Offender is effectually hindered from the Chance he would otherwife have of equalling his prefent Settlement, Autor

or perhaps greatly mending it. And whenever this is the Case, the expelled Person is not totally and absolutely driven out of the Society; or, to express it more properly, out of the Demesnes of the State to which he belonged, and of which he was a Member; but is fent and confined to some remote, obscure Corner of them; and consequently, of Course still remains fubject to, and has in many Respects the Protection of the State to which he belonged. But when Banishment is simple and absolute, the Criminal is merely turned out of the Society and obliged to feek a Retreat Abroad, where he can find it. In this Case the former Relation between him and the State intirely ceases, and they are to each other as in a State of Nature.

Had Mr. Warburton attended to these Things, he had talked upon this Head much clearer than he does; and had escaped some, not merely Obscurities, but Errors, which he here runs into. When he speaks of Banishment, as a withdrawing of Protection, it is a Mistake; it never is fo, absolutely, but in the Instance of Expulsion from the whole Demesses of the State; and, consequently, when it is least a Punishment. When a Criminal is sent to a remote Part of the State's Dominions, to be confined there, as it still retains it's Authority over him, so he still has a Right to, and may and will claim the State's Protection, upon many Accounts, and in many Respects; and the State will afford it him.

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Thus, Banishment is not necessarily a withdrawing of Protection; and it is only then fo, when it is, and is intended to be, the lightest Punishment. Which may shew perfectly Mr. Warburton's Error, when he fays immediately after: " Now where the thus withdrawing " Protection is inflicted for Disobedience, all "States have agreed, in Practice, to retain " their Right to Obedience from the banished " Member; though, according to the Nature " of the Thing itself, that Right be really dif-" charged."-What else but Disobedience can be a Reason for withdrawing Protection? And how can a State withdraw Protection, and yet retain a Right to Obedience from the banished Member? This is inconceivable and impossible. And, in Fact, we see it to be otherwise, whereever Protection is withdrawn absolutely. In this Case, the banished Person immediately puts himself under the Protection of some other State; and is thought by himself and others, and justly, to have no Relation, as before, to the State of which he was formerly a Member. This Mr. Warburton himself owns to be really the Truth of the Case, when he says, " that, " according to the Nature of the Thing itself, " the Right to Obedience is really discharged:" and gives a very good Reason for it: " Because " Obedience and Protection are reciprocal Con-" ditions of each other." If then what he fays be true, that, notwithstanding this, " States " have all agreed, in Practice, to retain their " Right to Obedience from the banished Mem-" ber;" atud l

"ber;" it will only follow, that they have all in Practice agreed to do a very foolish, and abfurd, and impossible Thing. It must be plainly foolish and absurd, for States, in Practice, to go contrary to the Nature of Things; and it is impossible they should retain a Thing, which,

in the Nature of Things, is not.

Yet, notwithstanding, he proceeds to affert, " It was first necessary all States should act " thus, when they inflicted Exile as a Punish-" ment: It being no Punishment, but by Ac-" cident, when the Claim to Subjection was re-" mitted with it."-Yes; the State, as was faid before, will and must look upon it as a Punishment to expel a Member out of it's Society, (for furely every State has a good Opinion of it's own Privileges;) and it may think mere Expulsion an adequate Punishment for fome Instances of Disobedience. And the Subject must, in the first Instant, esteem it a Punishment, to be ignominiously thrust out from being a Member of the Civil Society to which he belonged, as no longer worthy the Privileges of it. And though such a one may chance to fare as well abroad, or better than he did at home; this is no more a Proof, that his Expulfion was not a Punishment, intended to be fuch, inflicted as fuch, and adequate to his Guilt, than the Compassion and Relief, which a fined, or mutilated, or scourged Criminal may afterwards meet with from tender People, is a Proof, that Fining, Mutilation, or Scourging, is no Punishment, or a Punishment only by Accident.

In the fecond place, fays he, " States had a "Right to act thus;" i.e. to retain their Right of Obedience from the banished Person; " be-" cause, being inflicted (Banishment) on an " Offender, all Claim of Advantage from that " reciprocal Condition had been before forfeit-" ed." The reciprocal Condition is Protection and Obedience. Now if Protection is the Condition of Obedience, and, vice versa, Obedience the Condition of Protection, remove one, and you necessarily take away the other. This is according to the very Nature of the Thing itfelf; and is as plain, as any Proposition whatfoever. To talk therefore of retaining a Right to Obedience, when all Right to Protection is denied, is abfurd and contradictory. And the Practice of all States might have shewn Mr. Warburton the contrary. For whenever a State banishes a Criminal only to some distant Corner of it's Dominions, it both affords Protection and claims Obedience: And this is what it does in the Case of a greater Degree of Guilt. But when it absolutely expels the Criminal out of it's Dominions, it never more concerns itself about him, except merely guarding against his Return: And this is inflicted in the Case of leffer Guilt. And whereas Mr. Warburton thinks he has here obviated an embarraffed Question, viz, "Whether a banished Man is a Subject of " the State that expelled him?" p. 17. marg. Note; he certainly has more embarraffed it than it was before; and the true Answer is, by diftinguishing between Banishments. One is absolute,

lute, and the Criminal is wholly separated from the State: The State then has nothing to do with him; but merely to guard against his Return. Another is not fo; the expelled Member. is not thrown out of the Dominions of the State, but only restrained to a particular Part of them; and, it is plain, he may be restrained here under what Conditions the State pleases: And, in this Case, both Protection is afforded, and Obedience claimed. All this fure may very eafily be conceived; and there is really no more Difficulty in the Thing, than there is in confidering, that when a State has two Criminals, for whose Guilt Banishment is thought the proper Punishment; it may, finding the Guilt (or even the natural Temper) of the Criminals to be different, make this Banishment more or less rigorous; wholly expel one, and detain the other in Durance in some obscure Corner. In the former Case, the Civil Government refigns him to a State of Nature; absolutely withdraws Protection, and gives up all Claim to Subjection and Obedience, (all which the State certainly may do;) in the other, it does nothing of this; and as certainly is at Liberty whether it will or not.

But, lastly; besides that what Mr. Warburton has said under this first Proposition, is so plainly wrong; what is the Tendency of it all to clear up in the least what he undertook to prove? Here he has left us quite at a Loss.

Let us see whether we have any Amends made us, under the second Proposition.

2. " Our

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2. "Our second Proposition is, that the "Sanction of Rewards could not, from the "Nature of Society, be inforced by it." For which he gives a double Reason: "Because it "could neither distinguish the Objects of it's "Favour; nor reward them, if distinguished," p. 17.

"it's Favour." To prove which, a Distinction is made between Punishing and Rewarding, viz. that in the one Case, there is no Necessity of knowing the Motives on which a Transgressor

acts; in the other Case there is.

Civil Judicatures, in order to punish, endeavour only to find out, whether the Transgreffion of the Laws was voluntary, and do not trouble themselves about the particular Principles or Motives that influenced to the Transgression; but punish (having found this) without Scruple, in Confidence of the Offender's Demerit: And this, with very good Reason, as Mr. Warburton fays: Because no one, in bis Senses, can be ignorant of the principal Transgressions of Civil Laws, of their Malignity.—By Demerit must be understood, what is really such, or real Demerit, in Opposition to false or merely appearing Demerit. This is plain from the Manner of the Expression, in Considence of the Offender's Demerit .- Now, I fay, on the contrary, that no Civil Judicature is capable of making a Judgment in this Case, any more than in the other, of real Merit: Which, it is afterwards owned, it can make no Judgment

allegain.

of, or a very imperfect and incompetent one; and this is given as a Reason why Rewards cannot be the Sanction of human Laws. Real Demerit requires just the same Faculties and Discernment to make a Judgment of it, as real Merit; and both equally depend upon the internal Principles and Motives of the Heart, which influenced to Action. But the Heart is

infcrutable to Man in both Cases equally.

What Mr. Warburton fays to support his Affertion, that the Magistrate in punishing Transgreffions, in Confidence of Demerit, proceeds with very good Reason, does not, be it ever so true, come up to the whole of Civil Punishment. Where a Transgression proceeds from Sottish Negligence, or Brutal Passion, there the Magistrate punishes, and there is real Demerit. But where a Transgression proceeds from presfing Necessity (as when Property is violated, to prevent Starving); or from Enthusiasm, or Superstition; the Magistrate still punishes, though there is no Demerit; or, perhaps, on the contrary, great Merit; and great Demerit would have attended the Omission. This is so far from being any Reason, why the Magistrate should not punish (I mean, where Enthusiasm or Superstition influence to Transgression) that it is the strongest Reason in the World for his doing it.

The Case is otherwise, he says, in Rewarding.—Here the Motive must be considered.—For my own part, I no more see a Necessity of this here, than he himself sees it in the other Case, viz. of Punishing. For as Society reaps the fame ill Effects from Transgressions, whatever are the fecret Motives or Principles from whence they proceed; it reaps the fame good Effects from Obedience to it's Laws, whatever fecret Motives it may proceed from. And if for the former Reason it punishes rightly; for the latter it may and should reward, if it can. Mr. Warburton's Reason for considering the Motive to Obedience, is what, I believe, no body can understand. "Because, as merely doing ill " deserves Punishment, a Crime in the Case of " wrong Judgment being ever necessarily in-" ferred; fo merely abstaining from ill cannot " for that very Reason have any Merit," p. 18. What is merely doing ill? merely transgreffing a Law? The Action materially confidered, which the Law forbids? Is not this often done, both without Guilt and Punishment? It cannot therefore, with any Propriety, be faid, to deserve Punishment. And in many other Cases, where there is no Desert of Punishment, the Magistrate, notwithstanding, shall punish, and rightly; purely from a due Regard to the Publick; which can never be fufficiently confulted, without allowing fuch a Power of punishing.

Mere doing ill, it is faid, deferves Punishment; a Crime in the Case of wrong Judgment being ever necessarily inferred. This is very obscure. But however, suppose in all wrong Judgments there is something criminal, (which, perhaps, is the Meaning;) he must needs

needs allow, that this Criminalness admits of Degrees; and, in some Cases, is evanescent, approaching to nothing with infinite Nearnefs. Yet the State punishes without any Distinction, where the Crime is infinitely fmall, as where it is excessively great; and, in the same Manner, and to the same Degree; which often is extreme. This fufficiently shews, that Punishment is not determined and measured by real Demerit.—But fuffer him to conclude his Reafon .- So merely abstaining from ill, cannot for that very Reason have any Merit. An Oedipus might find Employment here. For that very Reason—What is that very Reason? It is hard enough to fay what it is; and not worth while to inquire after it; as it can never come up to the Author's Purpose; which, I think, I have already shewn. 2. His second Reason against positive Rewards is, in some Sense, a good one, viz. "That no Society can find a Fund fuffici-" ent for that Purpose." This is the only Reafon against positive Rewards of Obedience. And it is for this Reason, and no other, that the general Method among all Civil Governments has been, and still is, to inforce their Laws (the most necessary and fundamental of which are negative, i. e. against Injury) with only positive Punishments; it being thought, and rightly, that these, along with the Consideration and Experience of the immediate good Effects of Obedience, in the peaceable and fecure Possession of natural Rights, would be fufficient to procure a general Regard to them. needs

Yet still, fince this Regard is not so general and fo steady as might be wished, could any thing farther be found out, that might poptively encourage Obedience, no one fure should be against it. And a great many have been of Opinion, that fomething of this Kind might be done; more than the Generality of States have troubled themselves about; or even any. And this has been reckoned a Fault, and fuch a one as ought to be remedied, as far as possible. Surely Mr. Warburton cannot diffent from this: And yet, though this, and only this, was the View of all the Utopian Writers from Plato to Gulliver, he has thought fit to treat them as a Parcel of mere Projectors. But he is plainly angry, that these Writers ever thought of positive Rewards. For which, I can conceive no Reason but this; that if such Rewards should be applied, and found effectual, his own Plan would be intirely superseded. Nothing can better shew this, than his Manner of accounting for the Conduct of these Utopian Visionaries. He fays, they were not contented with the fimple End of Government; which was only the " Security of the temporal Liberty and Proper-" ty of Man;" but would needs have it " ferve " all the good Purposes it was even accidental-" ly capable of producing;" and fo they fairly "jumbled together, all Sorts of Societies into one; and confounded the Religious, the Li-" terary, the Mercantile, the Convivial, with "the Civil." And having once "mistaken " the End," he says, it was not to be wondered G 2

they should err in the Means; and, particularly, should make Rewards a Sanction of human Laws.-Every Mistake here is not to be taken Notice of.—But give me Leave to ask; Should Civil Policy, as every Thing else, be made to answer all the Good it can? Are they then to be blamed, who would make Civil Government useful in as extensive a Manner as is possible? Or, ought any one to be against enlarging the Plan of Civil Government, if any Good can be produced by it?—However, we will at present suppose, that the only legitimate End (it certainly is the greatest) of Policy is, the Security of the temporal Liberty and Property of Man; and I would ask Mr. Warburton; Is this End fo fecured by merely penal Laws, that nothing farther needs be defired? This cannot be faid: For we daily fee how infecure thefe' Bleffings are, even to Life itself, through the headstrong Passions of foolish Men, these Penal Laws notwithstanding. Now, if positive Rewards (fuch as what some of the Utopian Writers have thought of) can be applied to bribe, or balance these Passions of Men; just in the fame Way, as Penalties attack and work upon their Fears; would it not be right, perfectly fo, to do it? The Answer must not be, that it cannot be done. These Authors are of a different Mind, and propose something of their Method. Would Mr. Warburton do any thing to Purpose, he should shew the Impracticableness of their Proposals. But this he does not attempt; and fatisfies himself with only endeavouring vouring to shew, how they came to be so wild in their Notions. In which Attempt too he as plainly falls short; because they might have fallen into the same Method, and proposed the same Means, though they had confined themselves to what he himself will have to be the only End of Civil Government, viz. the Secu-

rity of Liberty and Property.

But his Defign in all this, and the Inference he draws from fuch Reasoning, are now to be attended to; and, I believe, will appear furprifing. "But it being evident, that the joint "Sanctions of Rewards and Punishments are " but just sufficient to secure the tolerable Ob-" fervance of Right (the common false Opini-" on, that these are the two Hinges of Go-" vernment arifing from that Evidence) it fol-" lows, that, as Religion only can fupply the " Sanction of Rewards, which Society wants " and has not, Religion is absolutely necessary " to Civil Government," p. 20. By Sanctions of Rewards and Punishments, at the Beginning of the Sentence, I thought a good while, must be meant the civil or ordinary Sanctions of Laws; and, it must be owned, this is the natural Construction. But recollecting, that he has been directly arguing a great while against there being any fuch Sanction to human Laws as that of Rewards; and that, in Fact, the Force and Success of such a Sanction has never been fairly tried; and that therefore he could not fay how evident it was from Experience, that fuch a Sanction of Rewards, along with G 3 that vonting

that of Punishments, was but just sufficient to secure a tolerable Observance of Right—I concluded at last, that by the joint Sanctions of Rewards and Punishments, must be meant, of Religious Rewards, and Temporal Punishments. And since Religious Rewards Religion only can supply, hence he concludes, that Religion is ab-

solutely necessary to the State.

That Religion only can fupply religious Rewards, must be plain enough. But if he should fay, that by Rewards he means only positive Rewards, and affert that Religion only can fupply these, he plainly takes that for granted, which the Utopian Authors will by no means grant him: And then, his Conclusion stands upon Premises incapable of supporting it. They will fay, and fay truly, their Method has never yet been fairly tried; and therefore it cannot be faid, what may be the Effect of it. Nay, they will fay, and fay truly, that even the Sanction of Punishments has never yet been so well adjusted, and so steadily executed, as it might and ought to have been. And that upon this Account too, he is too hafty in his Conclusion.

He proceeds, p. 21.

"Having thus proved the Service of Reli"gion in general to Society, and shewn by
"what Influence it is that this Service is per"formed, we are enabled to proceed to the
"Proof of the particular Proposition in Ques"tion." This particular Proposition must be
that which stands at the Head of this Section:
"That the inculcating the Doctrine of a future

" State

"State of Rewards and Punishments, is neces-" fary to the Well-being of Civil Society," But then I am at a Loss to find the Meaning of that Expression of proceeding to the Proof of it. For what has been done hitherto? He has already shewn that Civil Society cannot (as he is fond of expressing it) enforce the Sanction of Rewards, upon feveral Accounts, and particularly upon this, that it has not a Fund fufficient for this Purpose; and therefore, that it is Religion only, that can enforce the Sanction of Rewards; which Sanction is absolutely necessary to procure Obedience to Civil Laws. would not one think, this farther Consequence was immediately strong and good, that therefore "the Sanction of future Rewards and Pu-" nishments was necessary to the Well-being " of Society, i. e. that the inculcating the Doc-" trine of future Rewards was necessary to the "Well-being of Society?" For it feems not to be conceivable, that the Rewards and Punishments of Religion are absolutely necessary to fecure Obedience to Civil Laws; and yet that these Rewards and Punishments should not be future. If it be asked, why may not they be present? The Answer is: If these Rewards and Punishments are constant, steady, and uniform, they will feem to be only the natural Effects and Consequences of Virtue and Vice. If they are otherwise, variable, inconstant, uncertain, they will seem to be, and really be, defective; incapable of answering their End; and future Rewards and Punishments must necessa-G 4

necessarily come in in Aid of them. The Confequence is, that upon all Accounts, the Doctrine of religious Rewards and Punishments, must necessarily mean future Rewards and Punishments, and refer to another State of Things.

Well; but having proved, as he fays, the Service of Religion in general to Society, and shewn by what Influence it is that this Service is performed, (viz. particularly and especially by Religion's inforcing the Sanction of Rewards to Obedience to Civil Laws, which Civil Constitutions cannot do,) he is inabled to proceed to the Proof of the Proposition in question. And he does it thus.

"By what has been faid, it appears, that "this Service is performed by Religion, folely " as it teaches a Providence, the Rewarder of " good Men, and the Punisher of ill.-What-" foever therefore is necessary for the Support " of this Doctrine of a Providence, is mediate-" ly necessary for the Well-being of Society," p. 21, 22. And then, "that the Doctrine of " a future State of Rewards and Punishments is " absolutely necessary, for the Support of the "general Doctrine of Providence," he proves from the uncertain and unequal Distribution of Good and Evil in the present Life. And hence concludes: " Now this Doctrine of a future "State being the only Support of Religion, " we conclude, which is what we had to prove, "that the inculcating it is necessary to the "Well-being of Society." I think I have rightly represented the Author's Sense, and his Man-

Divine Legation of Moses. 89

Manner of arguing here. And if fo, it may be left to the Reader to make his Judgment of it.

II.

But what I think myself more immediately concerned with here is, the Medium by which a future State of Rewards and Punishments is proved, in order to support the general Doctrine of a Providence, the Rewarder of good Men and Punisher of ill; viz. "The unequal Di"stribution of Good and Ill in the present Life."
This is the Argument, and the only one here

made Use of for this Purpose.

Now concerning this Argument it is to be observed, that though it is much used and almost in every Body's Mouth now-a-Days, it was hardly ever mentioned in Antiquity, and overlooked by the Philosophers, even when they were, exoterically, preaching up the Doctrine of a future State of Rewards and Punishments. with all the Arguments they could devise. Of which, I think, no other Reason can be asfigned, than that they had no Notion of fuch an unequal and partial Distribution of Good and Evil at present, as we are now perpetually making the Subject of Complaint. Or, if they thought of it at any Time, struck as it were by fome, appearingly, gross Inequalities, they never feem to have laid any great or lafting Strefs thereon.

This Difference between them and others may feem unaccountable: Yet may perhaps in a good Measure be resolved into the very wide Notions

Notions they and others have entertained concerning real Good and Evil; and partly, into the different Judgments they and others have usually passed upon personal Merit and Demerit, whether absolutely considered, or relatively and comparatively. The Ancients feem to have been much more cautious than the Moderns, in pronouncing upon this Man's real Merit, that Man's real Demerit. For they were well aware of the Impossibility of doing this rightly, without being able to do, what no Man upon Earth is capable of, viz. the fearthing into Men's Hearts, and there feeing all the fecret Springs and Motives of their Actions. And without this they could not but fee an utter Incapacity of judging of the Ways of Providence; which, for ought they knew to the contrary, might be, even at present, perfectly and exactly equal.

Nothing is cited here, except some Lines from Claudian (who cannot well, in this Case, be reckoned an Ancient) and a Passage from Herbert's Relig. Gent. As to the latter; why Lord Herbert should be esteemed and called an unexceptionable Evidence in this Case, is not to be conceived: When it is so quite certain, that what he says is directly contrary to Mr. Warburton's own Account, afterwards, of the Conduct and Opinion of those very Philosophers Lord Herbert is here speaking of. Herbert says, "It was the Doctrine of the best Schools or "Sects of the Gentile Philosophers and Di-"vines, that nothing was more agreeable to the

" Nature

" Nature of God, than that good Men should " be rewarded, evil Men punished. And fince " they faw plainly, that no fuch Distinction " was made in the present Life; but, on the " contrary, that good Men were often oppreffed " with Miseries, while the worst of Men lived " in Ease and Affluence; therefore they firmly " believed a future State of Retribution; be-" ing convinced by the clearest and strongest " Arguments drawn from the Juffice and "Goodness of God." "CERTISSIMIS ex " Justitia Bonitateque Divina argumentis de-" ductis, bonis post banc vitam præmium condig-

" num, malis pænam dari credebant."

It must be owned, Lord Herbert does not support these Affertions of his with any express Authorities from the Ancients, and only, in the Margin, refers us at large to Plato's Phædon; an Evidence Mr. Warburton will by no Means acquiesce in; and much less can he agree with Lord Herbert in these Affertions, without overturning in a Manner his whole Book: And it would be expressly contrary to what he afterwards fays of Plato in particular, and the Theistic Philosophers in general; that as to any moral Arguments by which alone a future State of Rewards and Punishments can be proved, "they " refolved them all into Tradition and the Re-" ligion of their Country." How ill does this agree with Herbert's CERTISSIMIS EX JUSTI-TIA BONITATEQUE DIVINA ARGUMENTIS DE-DUCTIS.

However, I cannot but think Lord Herbert was much mistaken, when he makes the Rise of these Arguments to be from the Fact and Observation of the unequal Distribution of Good and Evil at present. For, unless I am much mistaken, no one Sect of the Theistic Philosophers ever drew an Argument from hence to prove a future State. Neither Socrates, nor Pythagoras, nor Plato, nor Aristotle, nor Zeno, nor even Tully. The Reason of which may perhaps prefently appear in some Measure. Indeed, this was even too vulgar an Argument to be taken Notice of by the Philosophers; and the Observation of the Fact itself, was left by them to the Poets, who are full enough of it, especially the Tragic Writers; and knew, best of any, the proper Use that was to be made of it. Which Use was not however that, which Lord Herbert makes, (and Mr. Warburton too bere) and is now so common. Among all these Writers it would be hard perhaps to find one, that infers a future Retribution from the present appearing Inequality of Providence. But we may do, what will feem strange to the Generality, find it sometimes made Use of in Favour of Irreligion. And this is the Purport of the Lines here quoted from Claudian: And more plainly of the following Diftich : bood and and

Τολμῶ καθειπεῖν, μήποτ ἐκ εἰσιν Θεοὶ, Α. Κακόι γαρ εὐτυχενθες ἐπιπλήτθεσί με.

Simplicius, in his Comment upon Epictetus, producing

ducing these Lines of the Tragedian, immediately tells us, how easily Epictetus's Principles will obviate fuch an Objection: viz. by judging rightly of human Happiness; and placing it where only it can lye, and where only it can be met with: Not in the τα έκ εφ' ήμω, but in the τα εφ' ήμεν. When this was done, he thought it would be impossible not to see, that a good Man cannot be miserable, and a bad one cannot be happy, whatever external Appearances are. Καλώς εν έχει τέτες κ τω Επικήτω ωειθομένες, μη έν τοῖς έκτος, άλλ' έν τοῖς έφ ήμιν τίθεσθαι τα άγαθα ήμων κ τα κακά. έτως γαρ έτε αγαθός δυσπραγείσει ωστέ, έτε κακός ευροήσει, c. 38.

And this gives me an Opportunity of obferving, that the Philosophers, the best and wifest of them, could not by any Means use the Argument above for a future Retribution; because of the wide Notions they had of Good and Evil from the rest of the World. And particularly: Whereas Pain is commonly reckoned the greatest, and almost the only Evil, they generally denied it to be any Evil at all. So Tully expressly assures us in several Places of his Works; and particularly in his Offices, Lib. 3. c. 29. in Answer to an Objection against Regulus's Conduct. " What could Jove himself " have done more to punish his Breach of Oath, " than the Carthaginians did upon his keeping " it?" Or, " How could angry Jove have " hurt Regulus more than Regulus hurt him" felf?" " Nothing," Tully ingenuously confesses,

he, the Philosophers of greatest Weight and Authority are so far from allowing it to be the greatest Evil, that they will not grant it to be any Evil at all. This is the Opinion of those, who argue with the greatest Exactness: And even those who are less strict in their Reasoning, will allow it to be only a fecondary Evil." At enim ne iratus quidem fecondary Evil." At enim ne iratus quidem fipse Regulus." Certe; si nihil malum esset, nifi dolere. Id autem non modo non summum malum, sed nec malum quidem esse, maxima autoritate Philosophi affirmant.— Nervosius qui ista disserunt, solum audent malum dicere id, quod turpe est: qui autem remissius, bi tamen non dubitant summum malum dicere."

I know not whether it was not a Strain farther that Epictetus went, when he seemed to infer the Affection of the Gods for him, from those Circumstances of Poverty, Servitude, Pain and Lameness, which would be generally reckoned the very sharpest Ingredients of human Wretchedness: He wrote these Lines upon himself.

Δελος Ἐπίκ]η]ος γενόμην, κὰ σώμα]ι τηρος, Καὶ τενίην Ίρος, κὰ Φίλος άθανάτοις.

And it must not be imagined, he had the least secret Thought of better Things in another Life: Since from several Passages in his Writings it plainly enough appears, he had no Notion of

any

any proper Futurity. But he seems, apparently, to have looked upon these external Circumstances, however distressful and wretched they may seem to common Eyes, as the VERY BEST FOR HIM *.

III.

What has been said hitherto concerns only Mr. Warburton's Reasoning under his first Proposition. The second is this: "That all Manwind, especially the most wise and learned

" Nations of Antiquity, have concurred in be-

" lieving and teaching, that the Doctrine of a " future State of Rewards and Punishments

" was necessary to the Well-being of civil So-

" ciety." p. 87.

And he endeavours to prove the Truth of it,

1. " From the Conduct of Legislators and In-

" stitutors of civil Society: 2. From the Opi-

" nions of all the wife and learned among the

" ancient Literati."

He begins with the former, and undertakes,

1. "To shew in general the civil Magis-"trate's Care in this Matter." And having done this, he proceeds, p. 102.

2. In the next Place, "To enumerate the feveral Arts" employed by him for this Pur-

pose.

" an extraordinary Revelation from some God."

-2. The second, "By making the Doctrine of a Providence, in it's full Extent, the grand Sanction of their Laws." — The third, "The Invention of the Mysteries."

I have given this short Detail, only to make what will now be said with Relation to the first of these Arts (the only one to be considered at present) more easily understood. And I believe, after all, the Reader will be sensible of a great Perplexity and Inconclusiveness in Mr. Warburton's Enlargement upon this Particular. The Assertion is this:

"The first Step the Legislator took, was to proclaim an extraordinary Revelation from

" fome God; by whose Command and Di-" rection he pretended to have instituted the

" Policy he would recommend to the People."

No Body, at all acquainted with Antiquity, will call in Question this Practice of the ancient Legislators, or the Commonness of it. But it is very hard to fee for what Purpose it is mentioned upon this Occasion. It should prove the Legislator's Concern and Endeavour " to incul-" cate a future State of Rewards and Punish-" ments:" For this is the only Point to be proved. But is it a plain Confequence of fuch a Fiction? or any Consequence at all? A Veneration for their Persons and a Reverence for their Laws are visible enough in it: Whoever fays there is more ought to prove it. Whether Mr. Warburton has done fo, we shall now fee. with delicable and the last to transport and the

probable to be probable

2-14 15

97

When he comes afterwards directly and particularly to the Defign of the Legislators in this Practice, he fays; " Hence we have enough to " conclude of their Sentiments concerning the " Use of Religion to a State." And it is very true; they could, and they always did, make a Handle of Religion to serve their political Purposes. Thus, if the People had not previously believed in the Gods and their Concern in human Affairs, the Legislators could have gained no Advantage to their Institutions by a pretended Intercourse with them. But Mr. Warburton is so far from being satisfied with this, that he will needs extract more out of this Fiction of the legislatorial Inspiration, than was ever thought of before, I think, by any Body.

As was just said, a Veneration for the Perfons of these Legislators, and a greater Respect for their Laws are plainly visible in it. But, it feems, there was more. " For, fays he, we " must always have in Mind what Diodorus Si-" culus fo truly observes, that they did this, " not only to beget a Veneration for their Laws, " but likewise to establish the Opinion of the "Superintendency of the Gods over human " Affairs." This does not feem very confiftent, in any other Sense than that of confirming, strengthening, fixing the Opinion of the Superintendency of the Gods. Because there must have been among the People, yet unpolicied, a Notion of this Kind, or the legislatorian Pretence could have had no Effect. Mr. War-

burton however will by no Means be fatisfied

W hen

with this: For "he will venture to go farther and endeavour to shew, that this latter was their principal Aim in all their Pretentions to

" Inspiration." p. 105.

And, after a long and no Ways necessary Parenthefis, he comes to what he undertook; and, I think, changes the Question. For now he makes it to be; "Whether these Pretensions of * the Legislators were made for the Sake of the " State immediately, or for the Sake of Religi-" on, and fo mediately only for the State." But if it was mediately for the State, it was ultimately, i. e. principally, for the State; and Religion was no otherwise concerned, than as it might subserve the Purposes of the State. And so it is frankly acknowledged in the next Words: " For, fays he, it is carefully to be observed, " that all that is in this Discourse represented as " contrived and done by the Magistrate in Be-" half of Religion, was not done ultimately for " it's own Sake, but for the Sake of the State." But is not this plainly contrary to what is here undertaken to be shewn; viz. " That Reli-" gion, or to establish the Opinion of the Su-" perintendency of the Gods over human Af-" fairs, was the principal Aim of all their Pre-" tensions to Inspiration?" And this in Oppofition to that political View, of gaining a Veneration for their Laws. Now, he fays, that not only this Pretention, but every Thing else that the Magistrate did in Behalf of Religion, was, not ultimately for it's own Sake, but for the Sake of the State. Is not this, faying, that the Here,

the State was the principal Aim of the Magiftrate in every Thing he did? And therefore flatly contrary to what he undertook to shew, by Way of Improvement upon Diodorus Siculus.

Yet even still the Question is not so fixed, that we can immediately come at the Answer. But we have another State of it; or another Manner of stating it. For thus he goes on: " The Question, I say, then is; whether this " Pretence to Inspiration was made to introduce ". a civil, or a religious Society." And is this really the Question? What, thus absolutely expressed? Religious, or Civil, Society? i. e. the one exclusive of, if not in Opposition to, the other? Certainly, this is not what was undertaken at first: Nor, at all agreeable with what he had just before said was the Point in Question; and feconded with an Observation, concerning the whole of what he himself fays throughout his whole Book, about the Care of the Magistrate with Relation to Religion; that it must all be understood to have an ultimate Reference to the State. Yet here is an Action of the Magistrate's, a Fiction, a Contrivance of his, which has ever been understood to be merely making a Tool of Religion for the Service of the State, and indeed, in a Manner, to throw a religious Colour and Complexion upon the State itself; and yet Mr. Warburton will needs have it to respect Religion only; or, Religion by Way of Distinction from and in Opposition to the State, and defigned (as it is expressed) to introduce a religious, not a civil, Society.

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Here,

Here, this is made the Question: The Determination follows.

And yet, as it should seem, we have not still the Question in the exactest Manner; since what is immediately faid by Way of Answer, plainly supposes a somewhat different Manner of expreffing it. For thus he proceeds: " If for " the civil Society," i. e. for the Good, the Benefit, of civil Society. - Does not this plainly pre-suppose the civil Society as already in Being? Therefore whatever it is, it cannot be done to introduce civil Society. - But indeed to pursue such Uncertainties, or Mistakes, would be tedious and endless.-To go on therefore with the Answer; " If for the civil Society, " the Effects he would aim at must be, to gain " Reception for his Policy and Laws; or, 2dly, " To fecure their immutable Duration." But as no Reason is affigned for this Necessity, every one will think himself at Liberty to be of another Opinion, who can affign any other Effects which might be in the Legislator's View, equally with, or more than these. An high Esteem and Veneration for their Persons, was the first and most immediate Effect intended by this Fiction of a divine Intercourse. The Consequence of which would be a ready Admission of their Laws and Subjection to them: Which is the first of his Effects. And as for the second; it might, probably, be intended thus far, and no farther; "that these Laws should continue in " Force, till the fame, or a like, much more a " fuperior, Hand should alter or remove them." But But the great and principal Effect, in Comparifon of which every other is nothing, is not yet mentioned; and that was, the effectual fecuring Obedience to their Laws. For it is conceivable, Laws may be received, continued, and yet with-

al neglected in Practice.

And it may be observed; this Effect was not hid from Mr. Warburton; no: Though he does not take it into his Division, he was well aware of it, and purposely omitted it; and for this very good Reason: viz. " Because this is the very " Thing he contends for; fuch Veneration and " Observance of the Laws, being only to be " procured by the Influence of Religion; " which the pretended Inspiration introduces." Such an Exception furely has not been often made, nor such a Reason often given. Let it be asked; might not the Legislator pretend to Inspiration for the Sake of civil Society? It will not be denied. And how was this Fiction to serve civil Society? By procuring a steady Observance of it's Laws? No; because nothing can procure this but Religion: Therefore, though he might and did, ultimately, intend the Observance of his Laws, the nearest Effect, and what was necessary in order to the other, was the Introduction of Religion. But was not Religion in being before these Pretences to Inspiration? Did not the People believe, antecedently, in that God, that the Legislator pretended to be inspired by? How then could this Pretenfion be to introduce Religion? No; Religion was in Being already; and the Legislator only H 3

made a Tool of it to secure the Observance of his Institutes; and this Pretence to Inspiration was the most effectual Manner possible of applying People's religious Notions to his political Pur-

poses.

Mr. Warburton, however, will needs have it, that if it be supposed, the Pretence to Inspiration was for the civil Society, it must be for one or both these two Purposes only; "Togain Reception for "his Laws; or, secure their immutable Dura-"tion." Then he endeavours, next of all, to shew, that it could not be intended for either of these Purposes; and concludes therefore that

it must be for the Sake of Religion.

It will hardly be worth while to make many Observations upon what he says to prove, that neither of these two Things could be in the Intention of the Legislator. What I shall say will be very brief .- " To the Introduction and " Reception of his Laws, there could, he fays, " be fmall Occasion for this Expedient;" Why? 1. Because of the plain good Tendency and Usefulness of civil Laws. And if to this it be faid (as it may very well be) that the ancient Legislators had to do with the most ignorant and favage Sorts of People; he observes, 2dly, "That though this might be the Case of " some, it was not the Case of most of those " with whom these Legislators had to do." Every one will fee, that this is a mere Affertion, without any just Authority to support it. We are now talking chiefly of the first Legislators, who began this Fiction of Inspiration; and, according

where of the People they had to do with, they were fufficiently wild and barbarous. What were they to whom Romulus and Numa gave Laws (though these were far from being the earliest Legislators)? Just wise enough to be wrought upon by such a Fiction; and too wilful, as it should seem, to be wrought upon without it.

But he will think it enough, if there were any of the ancient Legislators, who used this Fiction, and did not want it for the mere Introduction of their Laws; and concludes from thence, "that if we would assign a Cause of "their Pretence to Revelation as extensive as the "Fact, it must be—that which he contends "for." But this is being too hasty. There are other Reasons assignable, different from his; and which might be in the Legislator's View, whatever People he had to do with; viz. "The Continuance of the Laws:" And "the steady Observance of them." And to answer both these the Pretence to Inspiration might be but just sufficient.

But he goes on to another Confideration:
"Besides, says he, several of these Legislators
"gave Laws to a willing People, on the
"Strength of their personal Character of Vir"tue and Wisdom."—But surely, where this
was really the Case, it will be difficult enough
to assign any Reason for the Pretence to Inspiration at all.—He observes farther; "that
"where Religion was thoroughly settled, there

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" no Inspiration was pretended to." So, he fays, it was with Solon and Draco at Athens. Whatever was the Reason of their omitting it, that which is here affigned could not be it. For neither was Religion fo thoroughly fettled there in their Times, nor ever afterwards, as not to need perpetual Alterations of one Kind or other. And even both these Legislators gave Laws relating to Religion. -But, laftly, fays he, " had the Legislators had it only in "View to secure the Reception of their Laws, " the bare temporary Persuasion of their Inter-" course with the Gods, would have been suf-" ficient to have brought the People to embrace the Policy offered to them; but we find " they perpetuated the Memory of the Divine " Affiftance,"-p. 108. No body pretends this was the only View. This might be one; and might not others be joined with it? It is hard to find the Meaning; or, if not the Meaning, the Pertinency, of that Expression, a bare temporary Persuasion. An Institutor's being once inspired, might be sufficient to procure an Institution's Reception: But the Memory of the one, was necessary to effect the Continuance of the other: And for this Reason and Purpose, if any Means could be found out to perpetuate the Memory of fuch a Thing, it fhould be done, for the very fame Reason that the Thing was begun. But the Author's Manner of expressing the Reason of their perpetuating the Memory of the Divine Assistance afforded to them, will be reckoned fomewhat fingular. " It " could

" could fure be for no other End, but to e-" stablish the Opinion of the Superintendency " of the Gods," p. 109. As if it could be supposed they should want this, who in their most savage State are always represented as ever ready to receive any Thing from the Hands of their Gods: For which Reason too it was, and no other, that this Fiction of Intercourse with, and Inspiration from the Gods, was so univerfally made use of by these ancient Politicians. It had been better, if he had stuck to his former Manner of Expression, and said, To establish Religion. - As to the Way of perpetuating the Fiction; we are told it was twofold. One was by " prefacing their Institutions with it." That is, they wrote their Institutions, and this Fiction at the Head of them; and there it is plain it would last as long as the written Institutions. -But the other Way feems to be much the best; and that was, " to pretend, when the People " to be subdued to Society were more than u-" fually favage, that the extraordinary Inter-" course with the Gods was continued and " perpetuated." Was not this perpetuating it by perpetuating it? And if it be faid, they perpetuated the Memory of their own original Intercourse, by perpetuating the Intercourse itself; this could never enter into the old Legislators Heads; both because the perpetuating the Intercourse was not in their Power, and the perpetuating it would intirely render the Memory of their own original Intercourse needless. integral properties and the made

But for fear this should be reckoned trifling and tedious, let us go on to fomething more material.

He proceeds to the other Purpose to be anfwered by this Fiction, viz. " The perpetuating " their Institutions, and rendering them im-" mutable." This is expressed, as was before observed, somewhat too violently. It should be, " Till the same or a greater Authority shall " alter them." And what Absurdity in this? And as there is nothing in the Answer accommodated to this Sense of the Reason, I shall pass it over, and come to his Conclusion once more; which is this, p. 111. " Having shewn " that there was no Need of the Pretence to " Revelation for the Establishment of Civil Po-" licy, it follows, that it was made for the " Sake of Religion." - Having shewn - But how has this been shewn? Why, no otherwise than by omitting the Confideration of the most material Purpose of all relating to Civil Policy, viz. The steady Observance of the Laws: Which, from all the Experience of the World, every Motive and Reason, every Trick and Contrivance whatfoever, befides that of a Divine Revelation, were little enough, and too little, to procure in the Manner that was defirable. And let this Conclusion be compared with the Proposition he himself had laid down at the Head of this Section; where he afferts, that the Legiflator ascribed his Policy to a Divine Original, in order the more effectually to recommend it to his People. The Words are these. " The

"The first Step the Legislator took, was to proclaim an extraordinary Revelation from

" fome God, by whose Command and Direc-

" tion he pretended to have instituted the Po-

" LICY he would recommend to the People."
The Conclusion is:

"Having shewn that there was no Need of the Pretence to Revelation for the Establishment of Civil Policy, it follows, that it was

" made for the Sake of Religion."

But, lastly, in a Word; what is, after all, this whole Affair of the Inspiration of the old Legislators to a future State of Rewards and Punishments; the Doctrine of which he was to shew, had been inculcated by all of them? The Connexion of these two Things is intirely dropt; whether through Forgetfulness, or a Consciousness that it was not to be made out, is hard to say. But certainly, the Consequence is, that for Want of it, all that has been done under this Head, must plainly pass for nothing.

We will now come to something far more agreeable and entertaining, and, at the same Time, of far the greatest Importance of any Thing in Mr. Warburton's Book, viz. The real Opinion of the Philosophers concerning a future State of Rewards and Punishments.

He owns, they all were of Opinion, that "the inculcating this Doctrine was necessary "to the Well-being of Civil Society;" and not only this, but he likewise endeavours largely to shew, that they were perpetually in their Writings

Writings and Discourses afferting and preaching up this Doctrine. But then (which is the most extraordinary Part of Mr. Warburton's Undertaking) he endeavours, after all this, to shew, that though the Philosophers, the Theistical Part of them, really thought this Doctrine necessary to the well-governing of Mankind, and ever inculcated it in their popular Writings and publick Discourses, they never a one of them, excepting only Socrates, really believed a Tittle of it. And this, I think, is done with no other Defign, than fo much the more thoroughly to convince us, how absolutely necessary this Doctrine is to the Welfare of Civil Society; fince those wife Men could so much infift upon, and fo fleadily and vigorously inculcate it, when at the fame Time they did not themselves really believe the Truth of it at all.

As this is a most furprifing Undertaking, it may be no mean Entertainment to fee how it is executed. And here I purpose to go along with the Author through the whole Perform-

And as, before he proceeds to the direct Proof of what he afferts, viz. " That the Philosophers " did not believe a future State of Rewards and " Punishments," he thinks it necessary (to abate the Prejudices against a new Opinion) to affign the general Reasons, which induced him to think, that " the Philosophers did not always " believe what they taught, and that they taught " this Doctrine in particular, without believing "it;" it will be proper here, in the first Place,

to observe with some Exactness, what these Reasons are, in order to judge of the Validity and Extensiveness of them.

1. The first general Reason is, " That the " ancient Sages held it allowable for the pub-" lick Good, to fay one Thing, when they "thought another." This may very eafily be allowed: Nay, the Observation might have been extended much farther; even to every Age and every Country of the World, when and where there was a Civil and Religious Policy established. But yet I cannot think, that in the Author's Enlargement upon this Reason, the true Ground upon which it stands is at all opened. Which I take to have been this; that it ever has been esteemed the very Essence of Religion, the believing there are invisible Powers, (or at least, one,) who superintend human Affairs, and will reward or punish according as Men behave themselves. Wherever this is believed, there is Religion; where it is not, there can be none. And wherever so much is believed, there is all the Religion that can be necessary to support a Civil Constitution. As to the Number, or Names of these invisible Powers, or the Distinctions that may be conceived (and accordingly denominated) in the invisible Power, it is plainly not of fo great Importance (or fo abfolutely necessary to influence human Action) as the believing that there is a superintending, invisible Power, whether fimple or compound. This Belief was univerfal among People, before Civil Society; fo that no Legislator, even among

the most savage Barbarians, even the wildest Thracians and Americans, going to institute a Civil Policy, ever found a fingle Person destitute of it : as Mr. Warburton fays.

And another Thing they univerfally found too, viz. that in Consequence of this Belief, People every where had some Manner of acknowledging, addreffing to, fupplicating the Favour, and deprecating the Anger of this invifible Power (whether fimple or compound.)

Now, as the Tendency of Religion to the Good of Society is plainly evident, and univerfally acknowledged, the Legislator going to institute a Civil Policy, proceeded upon those Notions of an invisible Power, which he found already among his People, and interwove the Manner of Worship with his Civil Constitutions; and this, whether he believed the popular Notions or not. If he did believe them, it was no Wonder: Well; but what if he did not believe them? Some or other invisible Power he himself believed (to suppose the contrary, would be to no Purpose in the present Case;) and he might think it fignified nothing, as to the real Influence of Religion on Society, whether this invisible Power resided in the Sun (according, perhaps, to his own Opinion) or in the Moon (according, perhaps, to the common Opinion;) or what was the Name or Names given to this invisible Power. An invisible Power believed, was the Thing that was necessary: He found this was believed; and though, perhaps, accompanied with a great many doubtful or falfe Cir-

Circumitantials, he winked at the one for the Sake of the other, and would not attempt the rectifying of the latter (which could be attended with no bad Effect) for Fear of unfettling the former; the Removal of which must be pernicious. This was the Reason, the true Reason, why Legislators universally fell in with the Religion in Being, when they instituted their Civil Policies.

And this was the true Reason too, why the wifest Men, who were not Legislators, every where conformed to the National Religion; and taught, that every one should do the same, though, at the same Time, they saw a great many Errors, and could think of Amendments in many Respects. By taking away the Fringe, they were afraid of rending the Coat; and, after all, as it was only the Fringe they found Fault with, though it might render the Coat a little heavy and cumbersom, it did not destroy the Nature of the Coat: That still remained what it was, and should be; and answered the good Purposes it was intended for. Therefore, though in their external Conformity, and in their Discourses, they might seem to affert what they knew to be false, they did it purely, and only, because they apprehended Things in the main to be right; and apprehended likewise, that more Hurt than Good would attend a Difcovery of their freest Sentiments.

Mr. Warburton's Account of this Matter, as it feems to me, is far-fetcht, and equally obficure and uncertain.—" The Legislators came

" to their People in the Name of a God: This " gave their Constitutions a religious Air: This " raised the Veneration of the People for these " civil Constitutions to the highest Degree: " And at the same Time with the civil Policy " was the national Religion established."-What all this is to the present Purpose is hard to fee. Was not the God, whose Name the Legislator always came in, the God of the Country? And was not the Religion established, the Religion of the Country to be civilized? And what was added, and whenever any Thing was added, was it not perfectly agreeable, or confiftent, with the Religion already in Being? And, it must be owned, this was plainly the Way to add Veneration to the State. But what did it do to Religion? And how will this account for that Maxim, which fo much prevailed, " that every one should conform to " the Religion of his Country?" The true Ground of that Maxim was this: That the publick Religion was every where looked upon as in the main right, and capable of answering the End proposed by it. And though some Faults might be found in it by speculative, inquisitive Men, it was thought more Mischief would arise from endeavouring to correct, than from conniving at them. This, doubtless, was the Apprehension of considerate Men in all Ages: And upon this was grounded that Maxim, " that every one should conform to the Re-" ligion of his Country."

And this, no Question, was the true Reason of Socrates's Conduct in particular. It may be allowed Mr. Warburton, that Socrates, though he always conformed to the established Religion, could not but fee fome Faults in it. This may reasonably be concluded from his Capacity and Diligence. But what were the particular Errors he faw, no one knows, as we are no where told them; except only in one Instance or two, not very extraordinary ones, or fuch as required any great Penetration. And it is not impossible we may, nay, it is very probable, we do, extend this Penetration of his much farther than it really went. And I think, indeed, as Mr. Warburton himself has represented him here, he makes less for his Purpose, than otherwise he would do.

He was accused of Impiety. Yet before his Judges he declares it was always his Opinion, " that every one should conform to the Religi-" on of his Country." " And if it should be " fuspected, that this was only faying what " made best for his Defence, let us pursue him, " fays Mr. Warburton, to his last Moments, " retired amidst his philosophic Friends and " Followers; and there we shall find him still " true to this great Principle,"-viz. of conforming to the Religion of his Country. What? whether he believed it, or not? Or, though he believed it to be false? This would be aspersing him in a worse Manner than his worst Enemies ever did.—He ordered, it feems, one of his Friends to facrifice a Cock to Æsculapius, after he was dead. This Action has indeed puzzled many; and, in the obvious Meaning of it, it would lead one to think, Socrates did not fee so far into the Falshood of the established Religion as we, through Prejudice, perhaps, in Favour of him, are apt generally to think. For it is hard to suppose, that one of his Character should, in his latest Moments, comply with a religious Custom of his Country, which his Judgment was against; and do this too among all his philosophic Friends; with whom he might, and should, have been as open and fincere as possible. As to myself, I should conclude from this Action, either that he did not fee the Errors of the publick Religion fo far as we imagine he did; or else (which is by no Means improbable) that we do not at this Distance understand the true Meaning of this Action, and put a quite wrong Construction upon it.

Perhaps, there will be no great Improbability in it, if we give this Action of Socrates an allegorical Turn. It was common with People to facrifice to Æsculapius, on the Recovery of their Health from any dangerous Illness; and the Sacrifice usually offered on such Occasions was a Cock. Now Socrates looking on the fatal Cup he had drank, and which had now at this Time almost wrought it's Effect, not as Poison, but as the most falutary Draught, which was to free him from the Wretchedness and Misery of the present Life, and put him into a State of Health, i.e. of Ease, Tranquillity and Happiness.

ness, beyond what he had hitherto known,—to fignify these Apprehensions of his in the allegorical Way, so familiar to the Ancients, ordered

this Sacrifice to be made to Æfculapius.

But here a Question is started; " Why should " these ancient Sages not think it lawful and " reasonable to forsake Error, and embrace "Truth; especially when —?" p. 309. This Question fure is very oddly worded. They could not possibly think otherwise; but then they thought it likewise very lawful and reasonable, not to oppose Error, when they faw no Prospect of Success; and not to urge Truth, when Prejudices were violently against it, and there was no absolute Necessity for it's being known. Mr. Warburton's Answer to this Question is not easily intelligible, though he calls it a plain Explanation of the Riddle. "The "Genius of their national Religion taught " them, that Utility, and not Truth, was the " End of Religion." If it did do this, it did not fall much short of the Truth. To fay, that the Good which Religion does, is it's End, is furely not amis: But who can conceive what is meant, when it is faid, "that Truth is the "End of Religion?" I believe, this is the first time of using that Expression.—He goes on; " And now not rightly diffinguishing be-" tween particular and general Utility, between " that which arises from the illegitimate Admi-" nistration of Civil Policy, and the legitimate, "they univerfally embraced this other falle " Conclusion, that Utility and Truth do not

" coincide." What? meaning that Utility never coincides with Truth; nor Truth with Utility? i. e. that Falshood only can produce Utility, and Truth Mischief? This certainly never was the Notion of any Set of Men whatfoever. And, though he next of all fays, " that " from this Principle a third necessarily arose: " that it was lawful and expedient to deceive " for the publick Good;" it is certain, that a much less violent and less unreasonable Principle will account for it. When the Prejudices of People are fo strong, that there is no Prospect of removing them, they must be humoured; and, if possible, managed so as to become the Occasion of Good. This is all that any of the wife Ancients feem to have meant. And I reckon it has been the Practice of all prudent Demagogues, in all Places and Ages of the World.

2. The second general Reason is; "That "the ancient Sages did actually say one Thing, "when they meant another," p. 301. Supposing this (nor is there any Difficulty in allowing it) will it from hence follow, that they did it, when they taught the Doctrine of a future State? This Custom of theirs, of speaking one Thing, when they meant another, it is said, "appears from that general Practice in the "Greek Philosophy, of a two-fold Doctrine, "the external and the internal, a vulgar and a "fecret one." The Practice of lying does by no Means necessarily follow from the Practice of the double Doctrine: I say, necessarily. For though

though the one might feem to come near the other, look very like it, and be in perpetual Danger of running into it; yet, originally they appear to have been very different, and the one was practifed without the least Taint of the other. Some Truths were concealed from the Vulgar, which were discovered to others, that were more capable of receiving them: Which every one must see to be a very different Thing from telling the Vulgar what was known to be false. This, I take it, was the true Meaning of the double Doctrine in it's Original. And every one must be sensible, how absolutely neceffary fuch a Method is in publick Instruction. One may venture to fay, that without it, all fuch Instruction must fail of it's End. - It might be carried farther, and with perfect Innocence, viz. Where People's Prejudices were fixed and violent, (as they are commonly found to be in fome Respect or other) there, to be so far from directly attacking them, as on the contrary to humour them, to suppose in their Instruction the Truth of them, and by this Means gain Admittance for some real and useful Truth, which otherwise would certainly have been excluded. This again is a Practice very different from Lying, and may be kept absolutely clear of it.—But, fays Mr. Warburton, "They " were not different Points of Doctrine, but " one and the fame, that were thus handled " differently, popularly, and philosophically." If it was fo; might not this be done in a very innocent Manner, without offending at all against

gainst their own real Sentiments? On the contrary; is not this often absolutely necessary, in order to accommodate the Doctrine to the Capacity of the Vulgar? And is not this too the very Conduct observed upon many Occasions in the Scriptures themselves? Where (to instance in what comes nearest to the present Purpose) both the Rewards and the Punishments of a future State are represented in such a Manner, by Images taken from the present World, as was exactly accommodated to the Capacity and Ap-

prehenfions of the common People.

Yet Mr. Warburton goes on most laboriously to prove, what every Body elfe will think plain enough, viz. That this Method of philosophifing, or of instructing, was " invented origi-" nally for the Service of Society," i, e. for the Good of the People. What other End could it possibly have?—And yet more; he will shew, that the Greeks, who borrowed it of the Egyptians, the first Inventors, " actual-" ly employed it for that Purpose; however it " might at length degenerate into Craft and " Folly." There is no Occasion to follow him here, as I have no great Difference with him upon either of these Heads; except only, that I cannot agree with him, that the Egyptians were peculiarly the Inventors of this double Method; or that the Greeks knew nothing of it till they travelled into Egypt: On the contrary, it necessarily arises every where from the different Capacities and Improvements of Mankind.

The learned Cudworth *, after observing concerning the Egyptians, " that, besides their vul-" gar and fabulous Theology, they had another " ἀπόρρητ & Θεολογία, arcane and recondite " Theology-which differed from one ano-" ther, as Aristotle's Exoterics and Acroama-" tics;" informs us, upon the Authority of Origen, that the same Distinction obtained among the Perhans, the Syrians, the Indians; and all the other Nations, " who have, besides their " religious Fables, a Learning and Doctrine | :" And he owns too, that Origen thought it was the fame among Christians themselves, and that Christianity, " besides the Outside and exteri-" or Cortex of it, communicated to all, had a " more arcane and recondite Doctrine-which " all were not capable of."

But what I differ most from Mr. Warburton in is, that the Practice of Lying necessarily arises from the Practice of the double Doctrine. This is a Mistake: And he no where endeavours to shew, (which yet ought principally to have been done,) how the one is a Confequence

of the other.

I pass on therefore to his,

3. Third Reason, viz. " That the ancient " Sages feemed to practife the double Doctrine " in the Point in Question," p. 319. That is, that they preached a future State in publick, and denied it in private. This must be the

γεαμματα έχεσι. Meaning,

Meaning, or it is nothing to the Purpose. For as to the Manner of representing the Nature and Qualities of this future State, they might differ as much as they would in their publick and private Teaching, without affecting at all the Reality of it. But if they applied the double Doctrine to the Being of fuch a State, i.e. in publick taught it, but in private denied it, this would be to the present Purpose extremely; fince it would be Evidence enough, that they did not really believe any fuch Thing.-How far Mr. Warburton has made out this, most material, Point, any one may judge. He is very sparing of his Authorities here where they are most wanted, and most wished for: and, indeed, quotes nothing but an obscure Passage from Seneca; and at the same Time calls him a Mongrel.—But a little to supply this Defect, I would take Notice, that there is under the first Reason, a Citation from Macrobius*. which would, in my Opinion, have come in here much more to the Purpose. But, whether here or there, I am forry Mr. Warburton has not thought fit to elucidate it at all; or fo much as to give us the Occasion and Connexion of it: For Want of which, it can be of no Service to his Readers, unless to lead them into a very wrong Notion, perfectly different from what Macrobius intended. The Quotation is thus introduced: " Macrobius informing us on " what Subjects the Philosophers used this Li-" cense of Lying for the publick Good, says it 57971 211 * Somn. Scip. L. 1. C. 2.

" was concerning the Soul, and the national " Gods." " Sciendum est tamen, non in omnem " disputationem Philosophos admittere fabulosa vel " licita; sed bis uti solent cum de ANIMA, vel de " aeriis ætheriisve potestatibus, vel de cæteris " Dis loquuntur." In the first Edition, Mr. Warburton gave it us thus, and LICITA was printed in Capitals, though the Meaning of it could not be understood. In the second Edition, vel is changed into velut, and this indeed makes the Sense of Licita very easy. But upon what Authority this Alteration is made we are not told. It may however be allowed; unless we should rather choose to read (with Gronovius) for vel licita, vel ficta; which is but a small Alteration. Either of these Emendations will make the Sense plain and good.-However, this is only incidental.

Surely Mr. Warburton expresses it much too strongly, when he says, that "Macrobius here" informs us on what Subjects the Philosophers "used this License of Lying for the publick "Good." This is not at all the Sentiment that Macrobius expresses here; neither was there any Ground for it in the Nature of the Thing; a Fable being no more a Lie, than a Dialogue between sictitious Persons, a Parable, an Allegory, or even a Metaphor. But it is concerning Fables Macrobius is here speaking; and by Way of Answer to Colotes the Epicurean, (who had objected it to Plato, that he used Fables; which by no Means can become a Philosopher, treating upon any Subject): He gives us there-

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fore a Chapter upon this Head, to shew in what Cases the Philosophers used Fables, and to vindicate the Use of them. -- However, it will be necessary before we go any farther, to take a little more particular Notice of the Occasion of Macrobius's mentioning this Matter bere. It is in Vindication of Plato principally; and in the next Place of Tully. The one had raifed a dead Man to relate what is done in the next World; the other makes Scipio to fee it in a Dream. Now both these are Fictions, or Fables. And Plato, in particular, was found Fault with upon this Account, by the whole Epicurean Sect, his Performance ridiculed, and with it the most real and venerable Parts of Nature. " Epicureorum tota factio, æquo semper errore " a vero devia, & illa existimans ridenda qua " nesciat, sacrum volumen & augustissima irrist " naturæ seria." Colotes wrote a Book upon this Subject, and maintained, " that no Fables " ought to be composed by a Philosopher; be-" cause no Fiction can become a Professor of " Truth."-" Ait a Philosopho fabulam non " oportuisse confingi; quoniam nullum figmenti " genus veri professoribus conveniret." And his Reason is farther urged in this Manner. " If, " fays he, we are to be informed in the celefti-" al System, and the State or Habit of the Soul " when it is gone from hence, why are we " not told this in plain and fimple Language; " without the Interposition of imaginary Cases " and Persons, and, in a Sort, the whole Ap-" paratus of the Scenes: Whereby the very " Gate " Gate of Truth is polluted with a LIE?" " Cur enim, inquit, fi rerum cælestium notionem, " fi babitum nos animarum docere voluifti, non " fimplici & absoluta hoc infinuatione curatum
" est; sed quæsita persona, casusque excogitata no-" vitas, & composita (compositi) advocati (advo-" cata) scena figmenti ipsam quærendi veri janu-" am mendacio polluerunt?" In Answer to him Macrobius gives us a short Discourse concerning Fables in general; in order to shew, what Sort the Philosophers did, and might reasonably, make Use of, and likewise in what Cases they applied them. For as there were many Sorts of Fables, which Philosophy rejected, so there were some Cases in which it never used them. Of the former he had given several Instances before; and here, at the Place of Mr. Warburton's Quotation, he comes to give his Instances of the latter. And he mentions two: The supreme God, or wparov arrior, and the Mind, called by the Greeks, in the Way of Distinction, NEG. When the Philosophers (meaning, I suppose, in a strict Sense, the Platonists) treat of either of these, they never use any Fable at all. But when they come to treat of the other Gods, or the Soul, they then allow themselves in the Use of Fables. For which he gives the following Reason. " Quia sciunt inimicam esse naturæ apertam nu-" damque expositionem sui: quæ sicut vulgaribus " bominum sensibus intellectum sui vario rerum " tegmine operimentoque subtraxit; ita a pru-" dentibus arcana sua voluit per fabulosa trac-" tari." That is; "As Nature has wrapt " herself State

of Macrobius concerning these Fables of the Ancients; and therefore he resembles them, in the next Place, to the Mysteries: Which being

with Abundance of sensible Representations proper to strike the Eyes and Ears of the Initiated, reached no farther than the Imaginations of the greatest Part, and perhaps struck them with Awe and Reverence, while the better qualified and attentive only were capable of penetrating through the Appearances and reaching the true Secret. "Sic ipsa mysteria figura-" rum cuniculis operiuntur; ne VEL HÆC adep-" tis nuda rerum talium se natura præbeat: sed "summatibus tantum viris, sapientia interprete," veri arçani consciis, contenti sint reliqui ad ve-" nerationem siguris defendentibus a vilitate se-" cretum."

But it is Time to return.

What Mr. Warburton does farther under his third Reason, is making a general Observation concerning the Conduct of the Philosophers in their Writings: But what it will conclude in his Favour is hard to say. He has observed, it seems, that "those Sects which joined Le-"gislation with Philosophy, as the Pythagore-"ans, Platonists, Peripatetics and Stoics, al-"ways professed a Belief of a future State of Rewards and Punishments *; while those "who

^{*} Mr. Warburton can hardly stand by this Observation in the general Manner in which it is here expressed. For if we look forward to p. 357, 358. we shall find him citing Aristotle for the contrary Notion, and though not citing any Thing of Zeno's, yet declaring it as a Thing known and certain, "that the phi"losophic Principle of his School was, that the Soul died with the Body." And yet again, p. 389, 390. Aristotle in particular, and the Stoics in general, are mentioned as maritaining

" who fimply philosophized, as the Cyrenaic, " Cynic and Democritic," (this last Sect is expressly afterwards, p. 325. faid to be wholly atheistical; the same might have been said of the other two, with equal Reason) "pub-" lickly professed the contrary." It should feem, that the whole Meaning of this Observation is no more, than that some Sects were for a future State, and some against it. Nor is there any Thing strange in this: Nor in what is observed farther, that in those Sects that were generally on the Side of a future State, there were some that differted; so did Panætius from his Master Plato, and so did Chrysppus from Zeno: Nor, lastly; which is likewise taken Notice of, in one and the fame Man's talking differently about it at different Times; as Chryfippus did. As for the Reason here affigned, or infinuated, for these Variations, viz. that it was just as the Philosophical Sects, (or particular Philosophers at different Times,) gave or gave not themselves to Legislation; - this seems to be said merely in Pursuance of the favourite Notion. But in Opposition to it, I would only wish him to look back on that Part of his Performance. where he endeavours to shew, that the real Legislators did actually inforce their Laws with future Rewards and Punishments: and likewise

that the human Soul does not die with the Body. And, lastly; it would have been much more to the Purpose, if he could have shewn, that whereas Aristotle in his Ethics denies a future State of Rewards and Punishments, he has in his Politics afferted the contrary.

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there, where he has given us the Opinion of the ancient Sages in this Matter; and with Respect to both, reflect how little real Evidence he has produced. And this may sufficiently obviate what is said under the next general Reason:

Which we are told is gathered,

4. "From the Opinion that Antiquity seems to have had of it's Philosophers on this Point." p. 321. Here we are referred to some preceding Quotations from Timeus, Polybius, and Strabo; p. 295. How Pliny comes to be here dropt, since he is before-mentioned with the other three, I know not. As for Polybius; what he

fays has been confidered above.

These Writers observe how great a Difference there is among Mankind: Some are capable of being influenced by the natural Reason of Things; others are of a less reasonable and more unthinking Disposition: And that the latter must be influenced by the Rewards and Terrors of Religion; i. e. in other Words, by the Authority and Superintendency of invifible Powers; but none of them speak clearly and determinately of the Rewards and Punishments of another Life. Now Mr. Warburton dextrously calling the former Manner of acting the Religion of the Philosophers, (which these Authors do not,) opposes it to the other, which is the Religion of the State, and inforced with future Rewards and Punishments (which none of these Authors mention): from hence concludes, that in the Opinion of those Authors (and such as them) the Philosophers did not really believe this Doctrine.

Doctrine. But this is fuch a Consequence as cannot be admitted.

5. The last general Argument is taken from Cafar's Affair in the Senate. Which, well confidered, will make more against, than for him; and this in a much tenderer Point than that of the real Opinion of the old Philosophers. As to this latter it plainly determines nothing. -Casar discovered, manifestly enough, his own Sentiments concerning a future State. " De " pæna, possum equidem dicere id quod res habet; " in luctu atque miseriis, mortem ærumnarum " requiem, non cruciatum esse: eam cuncta mor-" talium mala dissolvere; ultra neque curæ neque " gaudio locum effe." Cato and Tully, in Anfwer to him, only fay, fuch a Notion had been derived by Tradition from their Ancestors, (as Mr. Warburton represents the Matter). - But had fuch a State been, (as the whole Defign of his Book is to shew,) the grand Sanction of all civil Government, furely Cafar must have met with a very different Treatment from what he did. -- And whereas it is faid farther; "Here " then was a fair Challenge to a philosophic " Examination; and can we believe these two " Patriots would be less favourably heard."-It feems more than a fufficient Answer to obferve, that this was by no Means a proper, either Time, or Place, to enter upon a philosophic Disputation.

With this Affair of Cafar give me Leave to join a parallel Piece of Conduct even of Tully himself. Who in his Oration for Chientius, in

Order to bring off his Client, or at least mitigate his Sentence, asks concerning that very wicked Fellow supposed to have been killed by him; "Quid tandem illi mali mors at"tulit? Nish forte ineptiis ac fabulis ducimur,
"ut existimemus illum apud inferos impiorum sup"plicia perferre *.—Quæ si falsa sint, id quod
"omnes intelligunt, quid ei tandem aliud mors

" eripuit præter sensum doloris?

Mr. Warburton quoting this Passage, as an Evidence that Tully himself did not really believe any Thing of a future State, makes this Reflection upon it; " that it proves, if no more, " at least that he has not concluded amis, when " from feveral Quotations interspersed through-" out this Work, in which a Disbelief of the " common Notion of a future State of Rewards " and Punishments is implied, he has inferred " the Writer's Disbelief of the Doctrine in ge-" neral." But Mr. Warburton is to be reminded, that Tully only speaks here of a future State of Punishment; and therefore, though from this Passage, Tully's Opinion of such a State might be inferred, nothing can be concluded concerning the Doctrine in general of a future

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^{*} Yet after this and before a much more august Askembly, he could considently enough affert what he here appears to ridicule, and express his Assurance, "that Jupiter the Patron "God of Rome would punish the Enemies of it, living and dead with everlasting Vengeance."—aternis supplicies vivos "mortuosque mastabis." In Catal. 1. And again, before the same Audience, speaking of those Antonians who had been killed sighting against their Country in the Battle of Modena, he makes no Scruple to say, "Impii illi—etiam ad inferos "pænas parricidii luent." Phil. 14.

State. And as to the Justness of his Inference from like Passages from other Ancients, " that " they did not believe a future State of Rewards " AND Punishments, because they sometimes " treated the common, vulgar Manner of re-" prefenting fuch a State with Ridicule;" it is by no Means good, either as to a State of Rewards, or as to a State of Punishments; unless there be fome fuch positive Declaration added, as here is by Tully in the Passage before us. Had Tully only ridiculed the vulgar Notion of Hell, nothing could have been inferred against the future Punishment of a bad Man +: Because though he is not punished in one Way, he may be in another. But, fince with respect to fuch a one, Tully says, Death has deprived him of nothing else but a Sense of Pain, it may be pretty well concluded as his Sentiment, that there is no future State of Punishment. And whenever in Citations from other Ancients, where the common vulgar Notions of future Punishments are denied, there is the like Declaration added, the fame Inference will hold

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[†] And Mr. Warburton himself, in the 2d Bdit, of his Book has told us, at the End of the 4th Sect of 3d Book, that we are not to doubt concerning the old professed Legislators (who either existed before the Grecian Philosophy or had not besotted themselves with it) but they "all believed, as well as "taught," a future State of Rewards and Punishments: And that yet, on the other Hand, we are not "to think they cre" dited all the idle Fables wherewith it had been clothed, in "order to lay hold of the gross Imaginations of the People." Now from hence it follows, universally; that merely from a Person's denying or ridiculing the vulgar Notions of a suture State, whether of Rewards or Punishments, no Inference can be drawn of his disbelieving the Thing itself.

good. But have any Passages of this Kind been produced; especially from the ancient Greeks? I cannot remember any. But if they had, this would not have been sufficient Proof, that they disbelieved, as well suture Rewards, as suture Punishments. Even Tully himself, upon many Occasions, says, very consistently, "hereaster we shall either be happy, or not be at all: "There is no third." * From all which it may seem plain, Mr. Warburton is much too hasty in concluding from such a Passage in Tully, or like Passages in other Authors (of which, if I remember right, he has no where produced any) the Sentiment of Tully, or others, concerning a future State in general.

But I have not done with this Passage from Tully. This Oration for Cluentius was long before Cæsar's Boldness in the Senate, when he declared so frankly against a future State. Mr. Warburton has oftener than once taken Notice of Cæsar's Conduct in this Instance, and spoken of it with great Indignation, as a terrible Presage of the approaching Ruin of the Roman State. Now what Tully here says is very much in the Manner of Cæsar, as any one may see who compares the two Passages +. How comes

* Atqui tertium certe nibil inveniri potest. De Senect. c. 19. Post mortem quidem sensus aut optandus aut nullus est. Ibid. c. 20.

[†] Tully says, concerning a very wicked Fellow, who had been killed: "Quid tandem illi mali mors attulit? Nist forte ineptiis ac fabulis ducimur, ut existimemus illum apud inseros "impiorum supplicia perferre.—Quæ si falsa sint, id quod omnes intelligunt, quid ei tandem aliud mors eripuit præter sensum "doloris?" Cæsar, concerning a Pack of as wicked Fellows, K 2

Mr. Warburton then to reflect with fo much Concern and Severity upon Cæsar's Conduct. and pass over Tully's without any Censure at all? Cæsar's was a "Licentiousness till then un-"known in that august Assembly." Tully's, 'tis true, was not acted in the Senate; but it was in a Court of Judicature; and where, probably, such Licentiousness, if it was Licenticusness, would be less indured than in the Senate. For the Senate was a legislative Court; where, from the very Nature of Things, greater Freedom of Speech and Debate must be allowed. than would be tolerable in a Court of Judicature. In a legislative Court Men may talk freely for or against a Law in Being, in order to have it either continued or repealed: But a judicial Court must ever reverence and maintain the Laws in Being, and check all Attempts to lessen the Force and Authority of them.

And this reminds me of another Thing, viz. that if a future State was, as it is so much afferted to be, the great Sanction of civil Laws in all the ancient Governments, and particularly among the Romans, all Attempts to destroy or weaken the Belief of such a State must have been construed as striking at the very Foundations of the Government, and could not have been passed over without a most severe Ani-

who were to be punished with Death for Crimes against the State, says, that to such People Death would be the greatest Blessing.—" De pæna, possum equidem dicere id quod res habet; in luctu atque miseriis mortem ærumnarum requiem, non crusiciatum, esse: eam cuncta mortalium mala dissolvere."

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madversion. Yet here are two of the greatest Men Rome ever had, publickly in the Faces of the most august and authoritative Assemblies declaring against such a State (at least a State of Punishment) without any, as plainly appears, the least Thought of a Reprehension, and, in Fact, without having any. And one of these (whatever may be faid of the other, and he too who did it first) a Person who had the greatest Respect for his Country and the Laws of it, and made it his principal Bufiness to preferve them in all their Vigour. Had he had any Notion, that a future State was the Sanction of those Laws, would he, so wantonly, without any real Occasion at all, but merely for the Sake of a rhetorical Flourish, have spoken against, and even ridiculed, that which was, as Mr. Warburton fays, the grand Sanction and Support of them? And this in a Court of Judicature? Nay, he goes farther; and speaks of his own Sentiment upon this Head, as being fo far from fingular, that it was general, and even Plebeian: " Id quod omnes intelligunt." There is, to me, many Times more Evidence in this Paffage of Tully's, or rather, in this Piece of his Conduct, that the Romans never once thought of Sanctioning their Laws with future Rewards and Punishments, than in all the Things Mr. Warburton has brought together upon this Head: Or, in other Words (to cut off all Occasion of Dispute about the Word, Sanction), that the Romans never imagined the Belief of a future State of Rewards and Punishments, the madvertion greatest, K 3

greatest, or even a great Security for the Obfervance of their Laws: But, like other States, had their chief Dependence upon their own Rewards and their own Punishments.

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After these general Reasons, which induced Mr. Warburton to "think that the Philoso-" phers did not always believe what they taught, "and that they taught this Doctrine, viz. of a future State, without believing it;" he comes to a "particular Examination of each

" Sect."-p. 325.

And after a Division of the old Greek Philosophy, he finds that there are only the Pythagoric, the Platonic, the Peripatetic, and the Stoic, to be inquired into upon the Point before us. For as to Socrates, whose Followers split into and founded the three latter of these Sects, he freely gives him up, and acknowledges that he believed a future State of Rewards and Punishments (though by the Way, as was observed before, this is very contrary to what Tully tells us; who always speaks of Socrates, Pythagoras and Plato, as being in the same Way of thinking with Respect to a future State.)

He begins with Pythagoras; and makes a great many Observations concerning him. Which Observations have but a very distant and observe Relation to the Matter in Hand: So that here there is but little to be taken Notice of for

fince he here refers to Famblicu

a great Way.

That Observation which we meet with, p. 334. may appear not a little furprifing. "that nothing might be wanting to his legisla-" tive Character, he likewise, in Conformity to " the general Practice, instituted Mysteries: In " which was taught, as usual, the Unity of the " divine Nature." - As if the instituting Myteries was a necessary Part of the legislative Character! No one ever heard of Lycurgus's instituting Mysteries among the Lacedamonians, or Romulus, or Numa, among the Romans. Yet these were great Legislators; and all of them older than Pythagoras. And one of them, as has been feen above, rejected all Mysteries, as a foolish Invention, and a Blemish, not in the civil Policy, but in the Religion, of some of the Greek States .- - Again; speaking of what was taught in the Mysteries of Pythagoras, how comes he to confine it to the Unity of the divine Nature; and fay, that this was what was ufually taught in the Mysteries? When, every where else, speaking of what was taught in them, he fo constantly fays, " The Doctrine of a Provi-" dence and of a future State of Rewards and " Punishments" was inculcated there; and farther fays, that " this Doctrine was of the Ef-" fence of mysterious Rites." But to have mentioned this Doctrine bere upon this Occasion, when he is about to shew, that Pythagoras believed no fuch Thing, might and would have looked, at least, oddly. Or, perhaps it was, (fince he here refers to Jamblicus's Life of Pythagoras), because his Author does not in this Place K 4

Place mention any Thing else but the Unity of the divine Nature. And does Jamblicus say so much? He fays, ακριδες άτην είδησιν αὐτῶν; i. e. the exactest Knowledge of them, viz. of the Gods. Is this the Unity of God? I believe, no Body that well confiders the Quotations above from Tully and Dionyfius, will eafily come into this Construction.

At last Mr. Warburton returns to his proper Subject, p. 345. and fays; "From what has " been faid of Pythagoras's Character it ap-" pears, that he taught several Doctrines which " he did not believe, and cultivated Opinions " merely on the Score of Utility." Let a Man read with ever fo much Care all that has been observed by Mr. Warburton concerning Pythagoras's Character, he will find himself puzzled to shew, from whence any such Thing appears. But if he did cultivate and inculcate Opinions merely on the Score of Utility, will it from hence follow, that this of a future State was one of them? No; but Timæus the Locrian, who was himself a Pythagorean, fays, " that " the popular Doctrine of the Metempsychosis was one." This may be allowed: And yet it will by no Means come up to his Point. For, notwithstanding Pythagoras's really disbelieving the Metempsychosis which he taught, he might still believe a future State of Rewards and Punishments. The Metempsychosis might be only a figurative Manner of representing a future Existence, accommodated to the low Apprehensions and gross Imaginations of People. And

in this Sense Timæus himself seems very capable of being understood *. " For as we some-" times cure the Body with unwholesom Re-" medies, when fuch as are most wholesom " have no Effect" (which Similitude, by the Way, is a very improper and unmeaning one, as Timœus has expressed it : Had he said, dangerous, bazardous Remedies, when the safe, or commonly fuccessful Remedies have no Effect, it had been more intelligible, though the Likeness might have been less.) " So we restrain those " Minds by false Relations, which will not be " restrained by the true. There is therefore a " Necessity of instilling the Dread of those fo-" reign Torments." Or, λέροινο δ' αναδκαίως κ τιμωρίαι ξέναι, may perhaps be better rendered thus; " There is moreover a Necessity of in-" culcating those foreign Torments; as that the " Soul shifts and changes it's Habitation; that " the Coward is ignominiously thrust into a " Woman's Form, &c." ψευδέσι λόίοις, false Relations, false Accounts, or false Representations; a figurative or metaphorical Manner of speaking of and describing a Reality, in order to the bringing it down to the Capacity of People, and it's making an Impression upon them. This may be the true Sense of ψευδέσι λόδοις. And τιμωρίαι Eval may refer to Egypt, from whence very probably, the Greeks borrowed their Manner of

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^{*} Ως γὰς τὰ σώμαῖα νοσώδεσι τόκα ὑγιάζομες, εἴκα μὴ εἴκη τοῖς ὑγιεινοτάτοις ὅτω τὰς ψυχὰς ἀπείργομες ψευδέσι λόγοις, εἴκα μὰ ἀγηῖαι ἀλαθέσι λέγοιντο δ' ἀναγκάιως κὰ τιμωρίαι ξέναι, ως μετενδυομέναν τὰν ψυχὰν, τῶν μὴν δειλῶν, Ε΄ς. De anima mundi.

The Metempsychosis might be a Fiction, and apprehended to be so by Pythagoras and Timaas; but it will by no Means follow, that there was no Reality at the Bottom; of which this was an highly figurative Representation. I cannot therefore think this Testimony so precise as Mr. Warburton would seem to reckon it; nor the Consequence he draws from it just. The Metempsychosis might be the ordinary Manner among the Pythagoreans and others, of speaking of and representing a future State of Rewards and Punishments; but it will by no Means sollow, that if they disbelieved this, they did not believe a future State at all.

But, it feems, after all there was a Metempfychofis really believed by Pythagoras, notwithftanding what Timaus fays above. For whereas the Metempfychofis of the Egyptians (and believed by all Mankind), from whom Pythagoras
received this Notion, was "a moral Defigna"tion of Providence +," Pythagoras gave it
"a different Modification, and made the old
"the Foundation of a new Notion of it; viz.
"that the fucceffive Transition of the Soul in-

^{*}We have feen above what Herodotus fays of certain Greeks, whose Names he knows but does not mention, borrowing the Notion of the Metempsychosis from the Egyptians, and using it as if it was their own. In all Probability Pythagorus was one of them.

⁺ See above, p. 5.

"to other Bodies was physical and necessary, and exclusive of all moral Considerations, whatsoever:" then it is added; "This was indeed peculiarly his," p. 346. But it is observable, not one single Authority is produced to support this Distinction: Which yet certainly ought not to have been omitted, if there had been any; especially for the excluding all meral

Confiderations what foever.

And it feems to be at the Expence of Truth, at least it is with perfect Uncertainty, that Ovid is here complimented with being well aware of this Distinction, and seeing the Perniciousness of Pythagoras's Notion. For nothing of this appears in Ovid. Pythagoras is introduced, as delivering his Doctrine of the Metempsychofis in general to the People of Crotona; and what he fays, has not the least Manner of a private or esoteric Doctrine; nor could Mr. Warburton himself have had the least Suspicion upon this Head, had it not been for the following Lines; which he quotes indeed, but which are merely levelled against the Fear of Death, grounded upon the Poetical or Mythological Account of what was to follow.

Quid Styga, quid Tenebras & Nomina vana timetis?

Whereas, fays Pythagoras,

Morte carent anima, semperque priore relicta, Sede novis domibus vivunt, babitantque recepta *.

^{*} Metamorph. L. 15. Fab. 3.

But Ovid himself, by no means, appears either from hence, or any thing else, to have had the least Sense of the Perniciousness of this Instruction: Nor was there any in it. Pythagoras might fay, that the Stories of Styx and Charon and Cerberus, &c. were all a Fiction; and that the Souls of Men pass from one Body to another, without excluding a moral Defignation, or fupposing that there may not be different Dwellings appointed for the Souls of Men, according as they have behaved themselves upon going out of one Body into another.

Yet though, as far as appears, there is no Manner of Foundation for this Distinction, we are told, in the next Place, that the " not at-" tending to it has much perplexed the best " modern Writers on the Subject of Pythago-" ras. Mr. Dacier advances crudely, that all "Antiquity have been deceived in thinking "Pythagoras really believed it; and for his Warrant quotes the Passage from Timaus, " given above. -Mr. Le Clerc -affirms, as crudely, that he did believe it.—In which "Dispute neither of them being aware of the " two different Sorts of the Metempsychofis, " have with much Confusion divided the right " and the wrong of the Question between "them."-Mr. Warburton is to be reminded again, that though he makes a Distinction of the Metempsychosis, calling one natural, and the other moral, the former of which was believed by Pythagoras, the latter not; and lays fo mighty a Streis upon this Distinction, as to charge BIDOLL both

both Dacier and Le Clerc with Crudities and Confusion, merely for Want of attending to it; he has not himself brought the least Evidence in the World for the Support of it. And whereas he may think, that without fuch a Distinction, it is impossible to reconcile the different Accounts that are given by ancient Authors concerning Pythagoras's Opinion of the Metempsychosis, I suspect he may in that too be mistaken; and, possibly, the true Way of reconciling all Differences, may be by understanding his Metempsychofis, either literally, or figuratively. In the figurative Sense, as a metaphorical Representation of what shall be hereafter, he believed it: In the literal Sense he did not. And in this Manner may his Belief of a future State be made confistent with what Timæus has faid, in the Paffage above, concerning it. The Account of a future State stript of all Figure and Allusion to the agreeable and difagreeable Images of the present World, would, probably, very little affect the Generality of People. And furely Pythagoras might prefer one Manner of Representation to another, without coming under the Suspicion of believing nothing at all about it.

Here ends Mr. Warburton's Account of Pythagoras, and his Notion of a future State of Rewards and Punishments; and, it is probable, he may reckon he has made it appear, that Pythagoras did not believe any fuch State, how much soever he might inculcate it in his Legislatorial Capacity. But though there is a very died (

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long Account under this Article, fwelled up to fo many Pages, yet, when a Man has fet afide all the Digreffions, and removed every Thing but what is really to the Purpose, it must be surprising to see how little remains; and, excepting that single Quotation from Timaus, (the Meaning and Force of which has been sufficiently considered,) he will not find any Thing that amounts to the least Proof of Mr. Warburton's Affertion.

2. He next proceeds to Plate, p. 349, and tells us, he had " for his Greek Masters, Py-" thagoras and Socrates; which was a mon-" ftrous Mifalliance; but that it was the ab-" struse Philosophy of Pythagoras he was most " attached to; for the Sake of which he trae velled to Egypt."-From hence, and some Observations more concerning the double Doctrine, Plato's Fondness for it, and the Opinion of the Ancients of the Necessity of this Key for the understanding his Writings; he is ready to come to this Conclusion: "The Platonic "Philosophy then being intirely Pythagorean " in the Point in question, and this latter re-" jecting the Doctrine of a future State of Re-" wards and Punishments, we might fairly con-" clude them both under the same Predica-" ment," p. 353. But this is going much too fast. It has not, I think, been proved at all, that Pythagoras rejected really a future State; and if this had been proved, it has not been shewn, that Plato followed his Example in preaching up a future State at the fame Time erious that

that he did not believe it. And, being fenfible that he had not fufficiently proved this latter Point, he proceeds to a more particular and di-

Hinch Confideration of it.

1. First then; he argued much for the Immortality of the Soul; but his Arguments were " Natural and Metaphyfical," drawn from the Essence and Qualities of the Soul; and so only proved the Permanency of it: And " this he " certainly believed." Hence it follows, that these Arguments were not of the Exoterical Sort, but what Plato himself looked upon as really good and conclusive; fince upon the Strength of them he really believed the Perma-

nency of the Soul.

One of these Arguments, and the most remarkable one (for it is rendred by Tully in his first Tusculan *, and displayed at large by Macrobius +, with Aristotle's Answer to it, and the Defence of it by Plato's Followers) is taken from it's being auroxing to, or having the Principle of Motion in itself: From whence he argued it must be assistate, i.e. immortal. An Argument, so far from being merely exoterical, that it is an exceeding good one; never yet anfwered, and much less by Aristotle; who thought it the best Way to deny the Soul's having such a Principle of Motion in itself.—If then fuch Arguments as this are found in Plato's exoterical Performances, which are themselves not at all exoterical, we shall plainly want some Cri-

^{*} Ch. 23 to M. Scip. c. 13, 14, 15 to 1 to 12 to 13 to 15 to

required.

terion to affift us in judging, while we read those Books, what Parts of them are true in the Author's Judgment, and which are only popular. And in no Case whatsoever will it be good arguing, that because such or such an Affertion is met with in this or the other Book, e.g. the Laws, Criton, &c.—therefore it must be exoterical. The utmost that can be concluded from hence is, that it may be so; but to prove it is, some other Argument is necessarily

Well; Plato did really prove and believe the Permanency of the Soul: "But, fays Mr. War-"burton, for any moral Arguments, from which only a future State of Rewards and "Punishments can be deduced, he resolves them all into Tradition, and the Religion of his Country." Plato, doubtless, thought, and so does every one now, that in order to prove a future State of Rewards and Punishments, it was very necessary to shew, that the Nature of the Soul was such as proved a Capacity in it of existing after the Body is parted from it *. This

being

^{*} Here it may be observed, that this is the very Account Macrobius gives us of Plato's Conduct and Design in the Phado. "Rerum omnium Plato & astuum naturam penitus inspiciens advertit in omni sermone suo de reipublicae institutione proposto infundendum animis justitiae amorem; sine qua non solum resupublica, sed nec exiguus hominum caetus, nec domus quidem partua constabit. Ad hunc porro justitiae affectum pestoribus inoculandum nibil aque patrocinaturum vidit, quam si frustus ejus non videretur cum vita hominis terminari. Hunc vero superstitem durare post hominem qui poterat ostendi, NISI prius de animae immortalitate constaret? Fide autem sasta perpetuitatis amimarum, consequens esse animadvertit, ut certa illis loca nexu

being once established, it would be easy to say, and not very difficult to believe, what it was that should determine the Manner of it's Existence hereafter. It is acknowledged, Plato got over the former Difficulty; and from what is said under the next Head, it appears he found no Difficulty in the latter Case. For thus Mr. Warburton goes on.

2. " As the inventing Reasons for the Im-" mortality of the Soul was one Cause of his " being efteemed the grand Patron of this Be-" lief; fo another was his famous Refinement " (for it was indeed his) of the natural Me-" tempfychofis, viz. That the Changes and "Transitions," from one Body to another, " were the Purgations of impure Minds—and, " confequently, that pure and immaculate Souls " were exempt from this Transmigration." Then it is added; "This Platonic Metempfy-" chofis, (which was as peculiarly his, as the " other was Pythagoras's) feemed to have fome-" thing of a moral Defignation in it."-Pythagoras's Metempsychosis has been considered. He learned it from the Egyptians; but from a moral one (which it was in Egypt, and believed by all Mankind, fays Mr. Warburton himself, p. 346.) he made it a natural one. Plato comes after, and receiving this natural Me-

[&]quot; corporis absolutis, pro contemplatu probi improbive meriti depu" tata sint. Sic in Phædone, inexpugnabilium luce rafi" onum anima in veram dignitatem propriæ immortalitatis
" asserta, sequitur distinctio locorum, quæ hanc vitam relinquen" tibus ea lege debentur, quam sibi quisque vivendo sanxerit."
Somn. Scip. c. 1.

tempsychosis from his Master Pythagoras, refined upon it, and from a natural made it again a moral one. Plato travelled into Egypt, as well as his Master, and was instucted there in the moral Metempsychosis, i.e. that the Metempsychosis had a moral Defignation. The moral Defignation therefore was not a Refinement peculiar to Plato, but was an Egyptian Notion long before him and his Master, and believed too, fays Mr. Warburton, by all the World. Poffibly (not certainly by any Means) this Notion might be his, viz. That perfect Souls were exempted from Transmigration. Perhaps, neither the Egyptians, nor Pythagoras, ever dreamt of there being any fuch; and then they could not think of making the Exception. However, for a certain Reason, I am very glad that Plato did-But how much they both " agreed (Plato and his Master) in excluding a " future State of Rewards and Punishments, will " be feen, when he comes to shew what a "Kind of Existence it was, that they afforded " to the Soul, when it had rejoined that uni-" versal Substance from which it was discerped." How much foever the Reader may be here baulked in his Expectation, he must be content to wait some Time for Mr. Warburton's Solution of this Difficulty; " how Plato's Metemp-" fychosis could be a moral one, quite different " from his Master's, which was merely a natu-" ral one, and likewise intended for the Pur-" gation of impure Minds; and yet after all " have no moral Defignation in it:" And likewife

wise of this; "How Pythagoras and his Dis"ciple could so perfectly agree in the End, the
"Termination of the Metempsychosis, and yet
"differ so widely as they did, about both the
"Nature and the Design of it."—All I shall
say farther here (and which I would desire may
be remembered, since there will be presently
Occasion for it) is; that, whatever Pythagoras
might do, Plato only supposed, that purged,
purified, perfect Souls could at any Time reascend to, and unite with, the original Substance, from whence they were taken.

3. But in the next Place; it is acknowledged to be very " true, that Plato in his Writ-" ings much inculcates—the Doctrine of a fu-" ture State of Rewards and Punishments. But " how? why, always in the groffest Sense of " the Populace: That the Souls of ill Men de-" fcended into Asses and Swine - talks of " three Judges in Hell, and of Styx, Cocytus, " &c." Thus he talked of, it feems, and represented the future State of Punishment. But we are not told, how he used to paint the future State of Rewards. No doubt, he chose a cleaner Conveyance for good, though imperfect, Men; till they were effectually purged, and made meet to re-ascend to, and rejoin the universal Substance. And as to that Way of painting a future State of Punishment, by disagreeable, filthy, or painful Images, it plainly all along has been, and still is, the constant Manner. And though Mr. Warburton may like one Manner of describing better than another, he

must

must own it all to be but Description still. Little else but Metaphor and Allegory is ever made use of, in talking of suture Rewards and Punishments. And, without question, it is in a great Degree necessary it should be so. But to argue from hence, that a suture State is not believed, because it is thus described, is a Consequence that will not by any Means be admitted: Any more than Mr. Warburton will himself admit it, in the Case of the ancient Legislators *.

4. The last Observation, which is made in Confirmation of all the rest, seems to be, if possible, still less to the Purpose than any Thing yet faid, viz. " That the most intelligent of " the Ancients regarded what Plato faid of a " future State of Rewards and Punishments, as " faid in the exoteric Way, and not believed by himself," p. 355. There is no doubt but Plato himself knew very well, that his Descriptions of the future Punishments of ill Men were intirely figurative, and therefore did not believe them in the literal Sense. But he might think fuch a Manner of representing them was likely (so the old Legislators thought before him) to lay bold of the gross Imaginations of Men, make an Impression upon their Minds, and induce them to act well for Fear of what was to follow; when, perhaps, any other, more rational, Manner of Representation would not be regarded. And if Plato's Manner of Description was found Fault with by Chrysippus, or any other

^{*} See above, p. 136. marg. Note.

Ancient, it no Ways appears, that it was any Thing else, but the Representation; and nothing can be at all fafely concluded concerning Plato's Opinion of the Thing itself. It is well known, the same Fault has been found with the Representations of Revelation itself upon this Head: But no Body yet has been hardy enough to conclude from thence, that our Saviour and his Apostles did not believe a future State of Punishment. What has been said, will ferve equally for an Answer to what is next cited from Strabo *. The Word, μύθες, is only made use of to express the figurative Manner of Representation; and, notwithstanding that, both the Brachmans and Plato might equally believe a future State: Nor was it ever fuspected, that the Brachmans did not, or at this Day do not. Neither is the Quotation from Celsus more to the Purpose. Celsus might well think Plato's Representations allegorical; but it no ways appears he thought those Allegories meant nothing, or that therefore Plato did not believe a future State of Rewards and Punishments. On the contrary, it is plain Celfus had no Suspicion or Doubt upon this Head: Nay, he tells us there is a Meaning, and how we may find it out, though not without some Difficulty. The Way to find it out, is, by comprehending what Plato intends, when speaking of Souls, whether extremely corrupt, or only imperfect, and not yet fufficiently purged, he

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Τα εαπλίκυσι δί και μύθυς, άσπερ κ Πλάτων περί τε άφθαρσίας ψυχής κ των καθ άδυ κρίσεων, κ άλλα τοιαύτα. Geogr.

fays (fo Mr. Warburton gives his Sense) " They " cannot, by reason of their Imbecillity and " Sluggishness, penetrate into the highest Re-" gion. But was their Nature vigorous enough " to raise itself to so sublime a Contemplation, " then would they come to understand, this " was the true Heaven, and the true Irradiati-" on." This Passage is so very sublime, that I am afraid very few will be able to understand a Tittle of it. Which makes it so much the more regretted by many, that whereas Mr. Warburton has given us a Note upon the axy 91000 Que, we have not another on the o ann Due sparos. But the most important Thing of all had been to have told us, what that Contemplation is, which is so necessary, in order to understand the true Heaven, and the true Light. But this is omitted, and we are only told, " that these " remarkable Words, besides the general Con-" clusion to be drawn from them, confirm what has been faid of the peculiar Platonic " Metempsychosis." This general Conclusion, I suppose to be, that Plato believed nothing of a future State of Rewards and Punishments. But did Celfus think so? or intend that we should think so? -- As for the other Thing, viz. This Paffage's confirming what has been afferted of the peculiar Platonic Metempsychofis, (if this be a Matter of any Moment) it may be allowed to do that; i.e. so far as the Platonic Metempfychofis was a moral one, or had a moral Designation. But, as was before observed, a moral Metempsychosis was not a merely Platonic

tonic Notion; was not invented by Plato; nor. fo far as appears, at all improved by him. -Mr. Warburton goes on; " For here Celfus resolves " all Plato's Meaning, in his Representations of " a future State into that;" viz, the moral Metempsychofis, in Opposition to a merely natural one; which was the Pythagoric Notion .-" And we shall hereafter see, that that was re-" folved into the Re-union of the Soul with the " divine Nature, when it became vigorous e-" nough to penetrate into the highest Region." All that I shall observe here, is, that this, and an hundred fuch Remarks, will, by no Means, affect Plato's Belief of a future State of Rewards and Punishments. The utmost Stretch of Plato's free-thinking in the Cafe before us, feems to have been this, viz. " That he thought " the Souls of all Men would, fooner or later, " re-ascend to the supreme Substance: The " bad would be punished by passing from one " disagreeable State to another, till at last, "Thought and Reflection being awakened, " they gradually recovered to a State of Purity " and Perfection; and then they would afcend " to the original Substance. The Good would, " by various Changes, likewise purge off the " Remains of Impurity and Imperfection, and " then return and be re-united to the same Sub-" ftance."

Here ends the Account of Plato, and it must be referred to the Reader, whether the Author has not left this Article in as uncertain and inconclusive a Manner, as he did that of Pythagoras. L 4 Hence

Hence he proceeds to the Aristotelians and the Stoics, and makes short Work with them. as he might very well do. The Passage cited out of Aristotle's Ethicks, is decisive enough. Nothing is cited concerning Zeno's Opinion: except a Passage from Lactantius. But then, with Respect to this Citation, he fays: " Not " to mention that his (Zeno's) Follower Chry-" fippus laught at these Things as childish, we "know that the philosophic Principle of his " School was, that the Soul died with the Bo-"dy,"-p. 358. If he afferts this to be the Notion of Zeno's School in Zeno's Time, I apprehend he fays more than is any way to be proved; and directly, at the fame Time, contradicts Tully; who tells us, that the Stoics held that the Soul would live after it's Separation from the Body, but denied that it would always do fo *. As for Chryfippus, it has been before observed, that he was very inconstant and inconfistent upon this Head; and therefore is to be given up here, as well as elsewhere, for a repugnant Stoic. Afterwards, the Stoics differed; and many of them were doubtful upon this Head, and some denied such a State. Epictetus did fo; and he certainly was more Stoic than any Thing elfe. But what did Cato, who was older than he, and professedly a Stoic? Or, the other Cato, who was before him? If Tully's Book, De Senectute, where Cato is perfonated, was wrote in Character, we know fuf-

^{*} Tusc. Disp. 1. c. 31. Stoici autem usuram nobis largiuntur sanguam Cornicibus; din mansuros aiunt animos, semper negant. ficiently

ficiently what was his Opinion *. As for Seneca, who is cited again upon this Occasion, he was much younger than both of them; and was as inconstant and inconsistent as Chrysppus; therefore not to be much regarded.

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Mr. Warburton now thinking he has given fufficient Evidence, that the Philosophers did not believe a future State of either Rewards or Punishments, though they were perpetually inculcating this Doctrine in their Writings, proceeds to explain the very Causes, which kept the Philosophers from believing such a Thing. And

he fays, p. 368,

* The following Argument, or rather, the following Arguments (for there are several of them crowded together) taken from Plate, seem to have given him the greatest Conviction upon this Head; and they are such as may have their Weight with every one, and no one can possibly consider them as merely of a popular, exoterical Nature. " Quid multa? sic mibi per-" suasi, sic sentio: cum tanta celeritas animorum sit, tanta memo-" ria præteritorum, futurorumque prudentia, tot artes, tantæ scientiæ, tot inventa, non posse eam naturam, quæ res eas conti-" neat, effe mortalem: cumque semper agitetur animus, nec princi-" pium motus babeat, quia se ipse moveat, ne finem quidem babi-" turum esse motus, quia nunquam se ipse sit relicturus: et, cum " simplex animi natura esfet, neque baberet in se quidquam admi-" fum dispar sui atque dissimile, non posse eum dividi; quod si " non passit, non posse interire." -- These Arguments, so strong and convincing in their own Nature, and to himself in particular, he tells us, are taken from Plato. " Hac Plato nofter." And here again, Tully affures us, that in this Opinion of the proper Immortality of the Soul, Plato's Sentiment was the fame with that of Pythagoras, and his Sect, and likewise that of Socrates. For thus the preceding Quotation is introduced. " Audiebam " Pythagoram, Pythagoreosque—demonstrabantur mibi præte-" rea quæ Soerates supremo vitæ die de immortalitate animorum " disseruisset."—Then follows, " Quid multa? sic mihi per-" suasi, sic sentio."—Nothing can be plainer, than that Tully puts the Pythagoreans, Socrates and Plato, upon the same Footing exactly with Respect to the Immortality of the Soul. I. That 1. That the first Principle which hindered them was this; "That God could neither be "angry nor hurt any one." For which he cites Tully, Offic. 1. 3. c. 28.

Whether Tully speaks at all to his Purpose, or how far he does so, shall be now considered.

Tully does indeed mention fuch a Notion of the Philosophers (in what Manner will be prefently feen) upon Occasion of, and with Relation to, the particular Case of Regulus. Who, rather than persuade, or even consent to, an Exchange of the Carthaginian Prisoners, kept his Oath by returning to Carthage and yielding himself up to a cruel Death. This Action of Regulus is mentioned here by Tully, as an Example of that Greatness and Fortitude of Mind, which will help a Man to furmount any Difficulties, flight and despise the Appearances of Gain or Pleafure; and, on the other Hand, encounter any Degrees of Pain and Suffering, rather than be diverted or affrighted by either from doing his Duty; i. e. from doing what upon the whole, all Things confidered and duly balanced one against another, appears rightest and fittest for him to do. This is Tully's Way of accounting for Regulus's Conduct.

"He was fent, fays Tully, to the Roman Se-"nate, to propose an Exchange of Prisoners,

" under a solemn Oath to return to Carthage, " if the Senate rejected the Proposition."

" Juratus missus est ad Senatum, ut, nisi redditi

" essent Pænis captivi nobiles quidam, rediret ipse "Carthaginem." As soon as he entered Rome,

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he must, as Tully observes, be immediately firuck with a great many defirable Objects; Country-Wife-Children-the Degree of a Consular, which the late unlucky Chance of War could not deprive him of. A common Mind would have been immediately fo affected with these Things, as to reckon them superior to every Thing elfe, and for the Sake of them would have overlooked and flighted all other Confiderations. But not fo Regulus. The true Greatness and Fortitude of his Mind enabled him to fee, that in bis Case these Things were really upon the whole not good, not defirable. " Utilitatis speciem videbat, sed eam, ut res de-" clarat, falsam judicavit," That is, he used his Reason, and saw plainly that there were Circumstances in his Case, which quite overbalanced all the Utility of these Things. Therefore when he came into the Senate, he was fo far from seconding the Proposition he had made from the Carthaginians, that he diffuaded a Compliance with it, and accordingly it was rejected. And what did Regulus do then? Why, he returned to Carthage; and though he knew he was going to a cruel Enemy and exquifite Torments, neither that, nor the Tenderness he had for his Country and Family could detain him. And as this was all his own Choice, and the Refult of the most deliberate Consideration, we may pronounce him to have been much happier in the midst of even all his Tortures, than he could have been, had he staid at Rome an old-captive-perjured-Confular. " Ita-" que

que tum cum vigilando necabatur, erat in meliore causa, quam si domi senex, captivus, per-

" jurus, Consularis remansisset."

As to the particular Action of his returning to Carthage, it was his Oath that influenced him to do that. " Jusjurandum, fays Tully, confer-" vandum putabat." -- Now the mentioning Regulus's Oath and his Regard to it upon this Occasion, gives Tully the Opportunity of introducing several Objections to Regulus's keeping his Oath. Concerning all which Objections and Tully's Answers to them, it may and should be remarked, they would have found no Place at all, had it been at first observed, (as it is a great Way afterwards) that as to this particular Action of Regulus's keeping his Oath and returning to Carthage, whatever Fate he should there meet with, there was really nothing wonderful, or difficult, or even Matter of Choice in it. For, as the Manners of that Time were in which Regulus lived, he could not, in this Respect, have done otherwise than he did. Since had he not returned of his own Accord, he would have been compelled to it. That is; the Senate and People of Rome would themselves have fent him back in Chains, and with every other Mark of Infamy and Difgrace. In this Manner it is, that Tully at last recollects, and, I may add, as it were corrects, himself, and returns from a long Digreffion ||. " Sed ex tota hac laude Re-" guli unum illud est admiratione dignum, quod " captivos retinendos cenfuerit: nam quod re-

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"dit, nobis nunc mirabile videtur, illis quidem temporibus aliter facere non potuit. Itaque illa laus non est hominis, sed temporum." Here we have the real Truth of the Case; and from hence it is plain, that Regulus's keeping his Oath and going back to Carthage, made no Part at all of his real Merit.

Tully however had his End in mentioning this Oath, and gained by it an Opportunity of making and answering several Objections to Re-

gulus's keeping it.

One, and the first, is that which Mr. Warburton here mentions. "Quid est igitur, dixerit " quis, in jurejurando? Num iratum timemus " Jovem? At hoc quidem commune est omnium " Philosophorum, non eorum modo qui deum nibil " babere ipsum negotii dicunt, & nibil exhibere " alteri, sed eorum etiam, qui deum semper age-" re aliquid & moliri volunt, nunquam nec irafci " deum nec nocere." Immediately after this come the other Objections; and as Tully's Answers follow afterwards in the same Order, he first of all fpeaks to this, and fays; "That fuch a Reason" " would hold good not only against Regulus, " or bis keeping bis Oath, but equally against " every Oath, or the keeping any Oath at all. " But in taking an Oath, the proper and pri-" mary Confideration is, not what Fear there " is in it, but what is the Force of it. An Oath " is a religious Affirmation: And what is thus, " affirmatively (positively, certainly) promised, " as in the Presence of God, quasi Deo teste " (Tully does not add, & ultore) must be held

to and performed. For this does not relate to the Anger of the Gods, which is nothing here, but to Justice and good Faith; which are Considerations of principal Moment, and to be preferred to all private Views whatso ever. This was plainly the Sentiment of our Ancestors; who therefore placed and wor-

" shipped the Image of good Faith in the Ca" pitol the very next to that of Jupiter him-

" felf."

This, I take it, is the true Sense of Tully's Answer to the first Objection; and in particular of that Expression, " jam enim non ad iram " deorum, quæ nulla eft, sed ad justitiam & ad " fidem pertinet." — Qua nulla est, seems to be the same as, quæ nibil est, i. e. nibil ad banc rem. That is; it is nothing to the present Purpose; it does not properly come into any Confideration here. As the Words feem not quite incapable of this Construction, it may not a little incline us to think it is the true one, to confider, that Tully's denying absolutely the Anger of the Gods, in this Place, is utterly needless and foreign to the Purpose: As any one will presently see, who strictly attends to and confiders the Force of his Argument. Those indeed who make the Objection, do deny the Anger of the Gods, and fay, it is the Sentiment of all the Philosophers, "that God can " neither be angry nor hurt any one;" and upon this they ask; " what should Regulus or " any one else be afraid of in violating an Oath? Tully in his Answer apparently waves the Confideration

fideration of this philosophical Opinion; and satisfies himself with observing, that it is nothing to the Purpose; since in swearing a Man is to consider, not what Fear there is, but what is the proper, positive Force of his Oath. "Non qui metus, sed quæ vis sit, debet intelligi." And this will lead him, not to the Anger of the Gods, but to fusice and good Faith: Which are, and ought to be, Considerations of principal Moment; and particularly were so in the Judgment of our Ancestors.

This is Tully's Answer.

Let us now return to Mr. Warburton, who has neither quoted Tully, nor represented his Sense, in such a Manner as might be wished. Where the Omiffions feem to make against him, he has given us no Notice of them; but where they are of no Moment, he has by Breaks been very careful to give us Warning. After those Words—" Sed jusjurandum conser-" vandum putabat;" he has omitted this emphatical Conclusion. " Itaque tum cum vigi-" lando necabatur, erat in MELIORE CAUSA, " quam fi domi senex, captivus, perjurus consu-" laris remansisset;" and a great deal more, without giving the least Hint of any Omission: But on the contrary, goes on to the first Objection, as if in Tully it was immediately connected with " jusjurandum conservandum puta-" bat :" Which it is not. neither he andry

And again; Tully, he fays, affures us, that "the Principle of God's not being angry nor hurting any one," was held universally by the Philoso-

Philosophers, as well by those who believed a Providence, as by those who did not.——And for this quotes these Words, as if they expressed Tully's own Sentiment; "At hoc quidem "commune est omnium Philosophorum, non eorum modo qui deum nihil habere ipsum negotii di"cunt, & nihil exhibere alteri; sed eorum etiam qui deum semper agere aliquid moliri volunt, "nunquam nec irasci deum nec nocere."
Whereas these Words are not Tully's in any proper Sense, but an Objector's, and contain an Objection, the first of five or six, to Regulus's Conduct: Which Tully himself answers afterwards; in the Manner above.——

But let us go on to his Manner of representing Tully's Sense. "What Conclusions, says "he, follow from this Principle, against a su"ture State of Rewards and Punishments, in the Opinion of Tully himself, we shall now

" fee."--

In the first Place; Tully draws no Conclusions at all from that Principle, either one Way or another: But only observes concerning it, that it is here, upon this Occasion and with Relation to Regulus, mentioned and objected to no Manner of Purpose, and that it is quite beside the Question: Since, whatever is determined concerning the Anger of the Gods, Regulus's Conduct would, and might reasonably, have been the same. And in the second Place; it is to be observed, that Mr. Warburton no more tells us what those Conclusions are, than Tully himself has drawn them. One indeed, and

only one, is afterwards mentioned; and it shall

be presently considered.

Thus he goes on: "Tully is here commending Regulus for preferring the publick Good to
his own, and the honest to the profitable, in
dissinating the Release of the Carthaginian
Prisoners and returning back to certain Misery,
when he might have spent his Age at Home
in Peace and Pleasure *." Now let us see
what there is of this in Tully.

Does

What Truth there is in this Observation, or what Peace und Pleasure Regulus would have lived in had he staid at Rome, may appear, not only from what Tully himself tells us, but likewise from a parallel Instance in the next Punic War (when it cannot be pretended the Manners of the Romans were at all improved) related by Corn. Nepus, and preserved to us by A. Gellius. Noct. Attic. 1. 7. c. 18. Some of the ten Romans who had been fent by Hannibal to Rome after the Battle of Canna to propose an Exchange of Prisoners, under the Obligation of an Oath to return, if they did not succeed, thought it best, it feems, though the Senate rejected the Motion, to stay at Home and enjoy the Freedom and Delights of Rome. But whatever they might propose to themselves, they found every Thing turn out contrary to Expectation; and, instead of Peace and Pleasure. met with fo much Contempt and perpetual ill Usage from every Body as foon rendered even Life itself a Burthen. " Cornelius " autem Nepos, in libro Exemplorum quinto, id quoque literis man-" davit, multis in Senatu placuisse, ut ii, qui redire nollent, datis " custodibus ad Hannibalem deducerentur ; sed eam sententiam numero plurium, quibus id non videretur, superatam; eos tames " qui ad Hannibalem non redissent, usque adeo intestabiles invi-" sosque fuisse, ut tædium vitæ ceperint necemque sibi consciverint." It is observable in this Story, that, though the Senate had it in Deliberation, and many of the Members were of Opinion that these perjured Captives should be sent in safe Custody to the Carthaginian Camp, yet the Majority refused to come into it. Which is a remarkable Instance of what is above observed, that the Manners of the Romans were by no Means improved between the first and second Punic Wars; since Tully expressly tells us, that at the Time of the former, the Senate and People

Does Tully oppose private real Good to that of the Publick, or the really profitable to the honest? So much the contrary, that he shews, the private Good or Profit, which could have hindered Regulus from keeping his Oath, was a false Species, a Delufion. "Utilitatis speciem " videbat, sed eam, ut res declarat, FALSAM " judicavit: Quæ erat talis; manere in patria " -esse domi suæ cum uxore-cum liberis-quam " calamitatem accepisset in bello communem for-" tunæ bellicæ judicantem tenere consularis dig-" nitatis gradum. Quis bæc neget effe Utilia? " quem censes? magnitudo animi & fortitudo ne-" gat." And it is so far from being true, or agreeable to Tully's Sentiment, that Regulus returned back to certain Misery, that, on the contrary, he fays, when Regulus was actually in his Torments, he was in more eligible Circumstances, than he could have been, had he staid at Rome. " Cum vigilando necabatur, erat in " MELIORE CAUSA, quam si domi Senex-capti-" vus-perjurus-confularis remansisset:" Where every Word is so very expressive of the extreme Wretchedness of that State he must have been in had he staid at Home.

Mr. Warburton goes on; " All this Tully observes was done out of Regard to his Oath.

of Rome would have made no Scruple of fending away fuch faithless People in Chains, and with every other Mark of Infamy and Disgrace. But yet at the same Time it is evident likewise, that though the Senate let these perjured Captives alone, yet every Body in their private Conduct behaved in such a Manner towards them, as quite rendered Life an insupportable Burden, and quickly reduced them to the Necessity of putting a violent End to it. 030 3 " But

But it may perhaps, fays he, be objected— " What is there in an Oath? The Violator need " not fear the Wrath of Heaven. For all " Philosophers hold, that God cannot be angry " nor burt any one." And what is Tully made to reply to this? Why, " that it was a Con-" fequence of the Principle of God's not being " angry, that the perjured Man had nothing to " fear from divine Vengeance: But that it was " not THIS Fear, which was really nothing, " but Justice and good Faith, that made the " Sanction of an Oath." If this is Tully's Reply, here is then, first, a Concession made; viz. that it was a Consequence of the Principle of God's not being angry, that the perjured Man had nothing to fear from divine Vengeance. --But where shall we find any Thing of this in Tully? If this be a Conclusion or a Consequence from that Principle, it is absolutely of Mr. Warburton's drawing, not Tully's. He has not the least Tittle of it. What Tully himself fays is this: " Such a Reason is quite impertinently " mentioned, with Relation to the particular " Case of Regulus: Since it will equally con-" clude against every Oath whatsoever. But " in fwearing a Man is not to confider, what " Fear there is in his Oath, i. e. what he has " to fear from breaking his Oath, but what is " the proper FORCE of it." -- " Non qui metus, " sed quæ vis sit, debet intelligi."—And to this Sense the Reason that follows is exactly accommodated. " Est enim jusjurandum affirmatio " religiosa: quod autem affirmate, quasi deo tefte, M 2

" teste, promiseris, id tenendum est; jam enim
" non ad iram deorum, quæ nulla est, sed ad

" justitiam & ad sidem pertinet." That is;
" For an Oath is a religious Affirmation; but

" what is thus promised, as in the Presence of God, must be performed: For now Justice

" and good Faith are concerned, and not at all

" the Anger of the Gods."

But then, in the next Place: What does Mr. Warburton mean by those Words; It was not THIS Fear - but Juffice and good Faith? - THIS Fear? What, the Fear of divine Vengeance? This must be the Meaning, if there is any. But Tully's Metus is general, and will include every Occasion of Fear, whether from the Gods, or the Magistrate, or any other Cause whatfoever: And I apprehend, that with Respect to all of them equally he would say, They do not any of them properly enter into " the Confideration of the Obligation of an " Oath." And therefore those, who think the Gods never are angry, and cannot hurt any one, cannot with any Propriety object this to Regulus, as a Reason why he might not have kept his Oath. " Non qui metus," is general: Not any particular Fear, but inclusive of all Fear, of every Kind, whatever is the Cause, Object, Occasion .- And Tully's Sentiment is; that no Fear whatever is properly concerned in the Obligation or Sanction of an Oath. And in this Manner he answers, or (as some would choose to express it rather) eludes, the first Objection; without at all entering into, or concerning himflet Objection . Which is, that this Answer fectas not to have

Divine Legation of Moses. 165 self with, this refined, philosophic Notion of the Anger of the Gods *.

And

If the learned Reader cannot, after all, acquiesce in the relative Sense of those Words "que nulla eft," and yet so far agree with me, as not to be able to fee, with what Propriety, or to what Purpole Tully himself should here deny absolutely the Anger of the Gods, he may confider another Manner of interpreting the Paffage before us; in which, I think, the Propriety of Tully's Language and Sentiments is equally confulted. It supposes an Ellipsis in the Words, " que nulla est," and they are thought to mean the same as, " que dicitur nulla este," or, quam dicunt nullam " effe." And though Ellipses are not by any Means to be imagined any where without Reason, it is thought that those who take the whole Passage before them, and well attend to it, will fee, that there is no Improbability in supposing one here. The Objector would have the Force of an Oath, to relate to the Anger of the Gods; which Anger he denies. Tully fays, the Force of an Oath has no Relation at all to the Anger here demed: But to Justice and good Faith. For what is an Oath but a religious Affirmation? And is not a Man obliged by Juffice and good Faith to perform what is fo promised? This Contruction, I confess, is not my own: But I mention it as a very plausible one, and perfectly agreeable to Tully's Manner; who seldom dogmatizes upon any Occasion, and cannot by any Means be supposed to do it in so material a Point, without any the least Motive or Propriety whatsoever. " The Obligation " of an Oath is derived from Justice and good Faith: The "Anger of the Gods has nothing to do with it," -- is not this faying enough? To what Purpose could it be added; "But this Anger is in itself nothing ?" Would not this be quite superfluous and impertinent, and equally different from Tully's Manner both of writing and philosophifing? But, on the other Hand; if it be supposed, these Words, " que nulla est," ex-press, not Tully's, but the Objector's Sense, there will be no Shadow at all of Impropriety or Impertinence. " The Obli-"gation of an Oath does not relate to the Anger of the Gods, "denied by the Objector, but to Justice and good Faith; which must be acknowledged by every one as capable of " obliging."

Yet here is another Difficulty, it must be owned, still behind, not relating to Tully's Language indeed, but the Strength of his Reasoning upon this Occasion, and in this Answer to the first Objection: Which is, that this Answer seems not to have

And from hence, I think, may appear, how intirely wrong Mr. Warburton is in his Conclufion: "Here we see Tully owns the Conse-"quence of this universal Principle, that it quite " overthrew the Notion of Divine Punishments."

Tully certainly acknowledges no fuch Thing, No, not even (ex abundanti) upon Mr. Warburton's own Construction of those Words " quæ nulla est." He will have them taken in the Sense of an absolute Negative. But what is it then that is here denied? It is the ira deorum;

left any effectual Difference between an Oath and a bare Promife. An Oath is a Promise, says Tully, made as in the Presence of God; " quafi deo tefte." This is plainly mentioned by Tully as adding fomething to the Obligation of a Promise. And yet really and effectually there is nothing added; upon the Suppofition, that though God be a Witness of an Oath, he is unconcerned whether it be kept or broken, and will neither reward

Paithfulness nor punish Perjury.

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But, lastly; with Relation to this whole Discourse concerning Regulus and his Oath, it is to be observed; that, notwithstand ing Tully's "Hee fere contra Regulum," it must not be supposed that any fuch Objection as the first could possibly be made in Ri-These Notions concerning the aroginoia of the gulus's Time. Gods had no Place among the Romans till long after. No, nor among the Greeks, out of the philosophic Schools; but both Greeks and Romans at this Time thought Perjury offensive to the Gods, and what the Gods could be angry at and would punish. And Agefilaus's Way of thinking and reasoning in a parallel Case was not, as yet, uncommon to both People. " Juravit " uterque (Agesilaus & Tissaphernes) says Corn. Nepos in Agesil. " se fine dolo inducias conservaturum. In qua pactione summa side " manst Agesilaus ; contra ea Tissaphernes nibil aliud quam bel-" lum comparavit. Id etfi sentiebat Laco, tamen jusjurandum ser-" vabat, multumque in eq consequi se dicebat, quod Tissaphernes " perjurio suo & homines suis rebus abalienaret, & Deos sibi ira-" tos redderet. Se autem fervata religione confirmare exercitum, " quum animadverteret deorum numen facere secum, hominesque sidi " conciliari amiciores, quod iis studere consuescent, quos conservare fidem viderent."

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and the Negation cannot be extended farther. without including more than Tully has done-" jam enim non ad iram deorum, quæ nulla eft? -that plainly is, " quæ Ira nulla est." Granting then, that here is a Denial of the Anger of God, it will not follow, that Tully denied likewife divine Punishments. As it is evident he has not actually denied these Punishments, he can possibly be charged with the Denial of them no otherwise than only as a Consequence of his denying the other, viz. the Anger. But to this it may reasonably be objected; that a Man is not to be charged with the Consequences of an Opinion; no, nor with any Confequence whatfoever, though ever so plain and direct, till he himself fees and owns it. Now Tully does not in the least mention such a Consequence, " No Pu-" nishments, because no Anger;" and it cannot any other Way be known whether he faw the Consequence or not. But, on the other Hand, much the greatest Probability is, that he was fo far from feeing the Justness of such a Confequence, that either had it been mentioned to him, or, in the least Respect to his Purpose to have taken any Notice of it upon the present Occasion, he would have denied it.

My Reason is this: He could, we find, very easily separate all Anger from the Execution of Justice, in the Case of the civil Magistrate: Nay, he reckoned, that Justice could never well be executed, where that Passion had any Place. Therefore he gives it as his Opinion, and a necessary Direction to the civil Powers,

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that they should resemble the Laws in this Respect, and execute Judgment with the same Coolness as the Laws themselves determine it. This he has done in the very Beginning of this Treatise of Offices *; and his Words are well worth reciting. "Probibenda autem MAXIME "EST IRA in puniendo: nunquam enim iratus, "qui accedet ad pænam, mediocritatem illam temebit, quæ est inter nimium & parum; quæ "placet peripateticis: & reste placet, modo non placet peripateticis: & reste placet, modo non laudarent iracundiam, & dicerent utiliter a natura datam. Illa vero omnibus in rebus repudianda est; optandumque ut ii, qui præ"funt reipublicæ legum similes sint, quæ ad pu"niendum non iracundia, sed æquitate ducuntur."

Now if Tully could so easily separate Anger from Justice in an inferior rational Being, he must much more easily do it with respect to the higher Orders, and most of all with respect to the fupreme. He reckoned Anger, we fee, the very worst Attendant of buman Justice (and would therefore have it absolutely excluded in every Case); could he think it necessary in the Execution of divine Justice? Nay, and so neceffary, that the one could not be executed without the other? So necessary, that the Denial of the one, the Anger of the Gods, must be immediately the Denial of the other, the Execution of their Justice? This could not be: It may be concluded therefore, that though Tully in those Words, " que nulla est," should be supposed absolutely to deny the Anger of

the Gods, he has still lest full Room for the Execution of their Justice in the Punishment of

evil Men.

Lastly: It may not be improper to observe, that this is not the only Place in the Offices. where Tully mentions that Notion of the Philosophers, " that the Gods do no Hurt to any " one." He had taken Notice of it as far back. as the Beginning of the fecond Book, c. 3. And it may be of some Service to see upon what Occasion and in what Manner he does it. He is there enumerating the feveral Things that are useful to Men. And first he divides them into Animata and Inanimata: The former he fubdivides into irrational and rational; and the last of these, into Men and Gods. " Ratione autem " utentium duo genera ponuntur, unum deorum, " alterum hominum." Concerning the Gods he fays, " that Piety and Holiness will conciliate " their Favour and Beneficence." " Deos pla-" catos Pietas efficiet & fanctitas." The Sense of the Passage requires this large Construction of the Word, placates.—Concerning Men he fays, "that in the second Place and next to the "Gods, they can be most useful to one ano-" ther." Proxime autem, & secundum deos, " bomines bominibus maxime utiles effe poffunt." Then he proceeds to observe, that of the Things burtful to Men the Division is the same. " Ea-" rumque rerum quæ noceant & obfint, eadem di-" visio est:" And then adds: " But because " they think that the Gods do no Hurt to Men, " they reckon that Men are chiefly hurtful to Therefore the

one another." " Sed quia deos nocere non putant, bis exceptis, bomines bominibus obesse " plurimum arbitrantur." - The Nominative Case to putant and arbitrantur will be in vain fought for by those who do not know or confider, that Tully in this Tract of Offices professes chiefly to follow the Stoics, as he declares at the Beginning of it. " Sequemur igitur boc quidem " tempore & bac in quæstione potissimum Stoicos." --- These therefore are the Persons he is here

fpeaking of.

And this gives an Occasion of observing; that Tully feems, as it were industriously, to hide his own real Sentiments concerning this Notion of the Gods, "their doing no Hurt to any one." Neither here, nor upon Occasion of Regulus does he say any Thing in his own Person, or let us know, what he himself really thought. But then, in the next Place; he himself informs us, that even in the Opinion of his Philosophers, the Ratio is not the same with Regard to both Good and Evil. They never dreamed, that because the Gods do no Hurt to any one, they neither therefore did any Good: But, on the contrary, from this Passage of Tully it is plain, they thought just the Reverse. The Gods did Good, and in so great a Measure, that, though in doing Mischief to one another Men have the first or only Place, " bomines bominibus obesse" plurimum," in doing of Good they can pretend to no more than the fecond Place: " Proxime " & secundum deos homines hominibus esse utiles."

Therefore farther, let it be observed, how infinitely wrong it must be to argue against a suture State of Rewards, because it may, or must, sollow from this Notion of the Philosophers, "that the Gods can hurt no Body," that there can be none of Punishments. God does Good here, though he does no Hurt; in the same Manner he may do Good, and no Hurt, hereaster.

And, lastly; whereas Tully elsewhere * fays, " Hominem naturæ obedientem homini nocere non " posse," would any one argue from hence, that there can be no Civil Punishments? If the Gods always act according to Nature, it will certainly follow, that they cannot burt any one: But will this farther Consequence be good, that then they cannot punish? Try it in the other Case, of the Civil Magistrate; a good Magistrate will act according to Nature, or the Reason of Things; and the Consequence is good, that fuch a one cannot burt any Body: Will it from hence follow, that fuch a one cannot inflict Civil Punishments? Such a Consequence is seen to be plainly bad, whether we speak of Fact or Right. Malefactors are punished by every good Magistrate; and they ought to be so agreeably to the Directions of Nature; just in the same Manner as a rotten Branch is separated from the Tree, or a mortified Member from the animal Body.

Mr. Warburton however was himself aware of several Objections against what he has advan-

^{*} Offic. L. 3. c. 5.

ced upon this Head, viz. " of the Anger of the Gods;" and he produces and endeavours to answer them.

I. The first is; That this Opinion of the Philosophers, " of God's not being angry, on y ly concludes against a future State of Punish ments, and not of Rewards," p. 373.

To this, says he, we reply;

I. " That when the Sanction of Punishment " is taken off, the greatest Influence of a future State is destroyed." But surely this is nothing to the Purpose. The Position he undertook to make good was, " That the Philofose phers did not believe a future State of Re-" wards and Punishments." And he provesit, by observing a Thing in which they all agreed, viz. " That God cannot be angry." It is objected to this Argument, that it only proves against a State of Punishment; and that therefore the Philosophers, notwithstanding this Tenet, might hold a State of Rewards. This is allowed; but then it is faid, that by taking away a State of Punishment, you destroy the greatest Influence * of a future State. Surely, this is too fhrewdly

Whatever Influence of a future State is taken away by denying future Punishments, Mr. Warburton should be the last to take Notice of, or lay any Stress upon it. Because under his strs Proposition, the Necessity of Religion to Society is made chiefly to arise from this Defect in Civil Government, "that it cannot inforce the Sanction of Rewards." It can inforce the Sanction of Punishments in the Manner, and to the Degree, it pleases: But not having the Sanction of Rewards in it's Power at all, and Religion only being able to inforce that; therefore it is necessary, upon this Account, to Society. See p. 20. "On the whole then it appears, that Civil Society has not,

threwdly observed; and as shrewd a Reason is given for it: " For while the Ancients made " the Rewards of Elyfum only temporary, they " made the Punishments of Tartarus eternal." But if fo, these Ancients were strange Men. and had rare Notions of Things; or rather, had most stupid Creatures to deal withal, who were capable of being managed at fuch a Rate. However, I shall venture to fay, he does not prove his Affertion. The Citations from Virgil fall short. The former; " Hos omnes ubi mille," -includes only the People of Elyfum; confequently (as Mr. Warburton himself will tell us presently) not all that are rewarded in a future State: The latter, " fedet æternumque fedebit," depends upon a fingle Word intirely; which is often used with so much Latitude, that nothing can eafily any where be concluded from it, as to a proper Eternity.

And as to Plato, who is next cited, he speaks only of great and most inexcusable Sinners as being thrown into Tartarus, from whence there is no Redemption. Γεροσυλίας πολλάς και μεγάλας, η φόνες αδίκες κὰ παρανόμες πολλές εξειργασμένοι, η αλλά—τοιαῦτα.—And as to Celsus, who is next produced; he is equally to be understood as speaking of the Eternity of su-

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[&]quot; in itself, the Sanction of Rewards, to secure the Obedience of it's Laws.—But it being evident, that the joint Sanc-

[&]quot;tions of Rewards and Punishments are but just sufficient to

[&]quot; as Religion only can supply the Sanction of Rewards, which "Society wants, and has not, Religion is absolutely necessary to Civil Government."

ture Rewards, as of future Punishments. μέν εθ βιώσαντες ευδαιμονήσεσιν, οι δε άδικοι πάμman aiwviois xaxois ouvifortai. —He fays, " the "Good will be happy, the Bad will be always " miserable." Does Celsus, by this Manner of Expression, determine, the Good will not be happy as long as the Wicked will be miserable? Surely, not: Nor does Origen fo understand it.

But then, in the next Place; he is well aware, that, as to the Eternity of future Rewards, feveral Passages might be brought to prove, that the Ancients believed it: As this of Tully, " Omnibus qui patriam conservarint—ubi be-" ati ævo sempiterno fruuntur;" and comes off by diftinguishing the Souls of Men, according, he fays, to the Opinion of the Ancients, into Human, Heroic and Demonic; the two last of which were indeed believed to enjoy eternal Happiness in Heaven. Believed? and, indeed believed? By whom? By the Philosophers? If fo, then the Dispute is at an End; and in more Respects than one. If it is to be understood of others, neither the Objection, nor the Quotation, are to any Purpose. But,

2. Mr. Warburton was fenfible, and could not be otherwise, that this first Answer was very infufficient; and therefore endeavours, in the next Place, to mend it; and tells us, "that " in every Sense of a future State, as a moral

" Defignation, Rewards and Punishments ne-" ceffarily imply each other; fo that where

" one is wanting, the other cannot possibly " fubfift:" adding, " This is too evident to " need

" need a Proof." But however evident it may be to him, I believe it is otherwise to almost every Body else. And was it many times more evident than it is, that future Rewards and Punishments necessarily imply each other, this would be nothing to the Philosophers, unless it can be any ways made appear, that they had the same Notion. And here let it be observed, that, whatever Lactantius might think, Tully, whose Opinion in these Cases is upon all Accounts infinitely preferable, was certainly of another Mind; and, as was faid above, always spoke of the future State (in his philosophical Works) as either a State of Happiness, or of no Sense at all; and could never conceive how a third could be. Nor is there any Thing wonderful in this: For the Ancients might be, much too easily, led to think, that a State of No-Sense, i.e. something tantamount to Annihilation, was a Punishment sufficient for the Transgressions of a short Life. And especially, when they appear to have had a much higher Apprehension of the present Punishment of great Crimes; and, on the other hand, of the Inefficacy of Vice to produce Happiness; than the Generality feem now to entertain.

3. There is however another Thing to be offered upon this Head, viz. "That the Phi"losophers, who held the Attribute of Grace
"or Favour in the Deity, meant it not as a
"Passion or Affection; in which Sense they
"understood the Anger that was denied by
"them." This he will "shew under the

boon?

" next

" next head," p. 375. He may shew it when he pleases; but what can it be to the Purpose? If there be a future State of Rewards (in the Opinion of the Philosophers) it must directly clash with what he has been endeavouring to prove, viz. " that there is (in their Opinion) no future State either of Rewards or of Pu-" nifhments." It fignifies nothing from what Principle in the Deity the future Rewards proceed: Much less, what Name they, or any one elfe, will give to that Principle: Whether it shall be called a Passion, or an Affection, or Reason; or, yet more particularly, Love, or Goodness; or, lastly, Justice. Though all this plainly appears, and really is, nothing to the Purpose; yet I cannot forbear observing a little farther upon what Mr. Warburton fays here; That the Philosophers might to the full as easily have separated all Passion from that Principle in the Deity, which was necessary for the punishing of Sinners, as they could from that Grace or Favour which must necessarily be supposed in order to the rewarding the righteous. And they might have been put in Mind of this every Day, by only observing the Conduct of every prudent Magistrate; who executed the Laws in the Punishment of Offenders, and rewarded the good Citizen, equally, without any Tranfport or Passion, one way or other. But,

2. He starts another Objection against his own Reasoning from that Opinion of the Philosophers, that God can neither be angry, nor burt any one, viz. "That it proves too much. For,

"HERE, as well as hereafter: Which Provi"dence several of the Theistical Philosophers,
"we know, did believe." And surely it must
be plain enough (as was before observed) that
if, because God has no Passion (either of Love
or Anger) he cannot do either Good or Hurt to
another; this will equally conclude against his
doing either of these in the present Life, as in
the suture. And if, notwithstanding his having no such Affections, (as Love or Hatred) he
can in the present Life, according to certain
Circumstances of Men, do either Good or Hurt
to them, he may equally do the same hereafter.

Mr. Warburton himself was certainly sensible of a Pinch upon this Head: For he labours at an Answer; and, I think, in vain. The Peripatetics and the Stoics he will have to deny a particular Providence. What is faid concerning the Providence they allowed, is by no Means clear and connected, (which indeed is not to be wondered at.) But the Observation made upon the whole, is furprifing to a Degree. "Here then is a Providence very confistent " with a Disbelief of a future State of Rewards " and Punishments."—For what is this to the Purpose of the Objection? Did they believe a present Providence or not? A Providence taking Care of good Men, and punishing the bad? If they did; notwithstanding that they held God could not love or bate; then, in Spite of that Tenet of their's, they might equally believe fuch. Regards

Regards would extend to Men in a future State of Being. But if they did not believe fuch Providence, then they are not of the Number of the Theistical Philosophers here meant, nor should they have been mentioned at all. And Mr. Warburton knows there were other Theiftical Philosophers besides them, viz. the Pythagoreans and Platonifts: And he owns, that they acknowledged a particular Providence, --" which could not possibly be administred " without the Affections of Love and Anger:" And fays; " Here then lies the Difficulty: "These Sects removed all Passions from the " Godhead; especially Anger: And on that " Account rejected a future State of Rewards " and Punishments, while yet they believed a er Providence; which was administred by the " Exercise of those very Passions." Here is Nodus vindice dignus; and Mr. Warburton will endeavour to folve it. In order to which, he has Recourse to an ancient Notion of Paganism, and thoroughly espoused by Pythagoras, and Plato in particular, viz. That of Tutelary Deities. And, in short, these are the superintending Beings, who exercise a particular Providence here below, influenced by the Affections of Love, Hatred, &c. " But when now, adds " he, the Soul is difingaged from the Body, it " is no longer, in their Opinion, under the "Government of Dæmons, nor, consequently, " fubject to the Effects of the Dæmonic Paffi-" ons: And what becomes of it then, we " fhall fee hereafter," p. 378. Several Things

are here afferted upon very flender Grounds .-However, at present, let it be only observed, that that Phrase, Difingaged from the Body, is quite ambiguous, as used here. It may mean, difingaged from the present Body; as happens at Death; or, difingaged from all Body, or organised Matter. In the latter Sense, methinks, it is to be taken here. Because Pythagoras and Plato made the Soul after Death, to pass through many Stages and Revolutions, before it arrived at the Place here hinted at. And in all thefe intermediate States it must be supposed to be fill under Damonic Influence; and was treated better or worse, according to it's Merit. Here then was (to observe it by the way) what might be called a future State of Rewards and Punishments; though not properly eternal.

But what wonderful Subtilty must this be; by these Demonic Agents to reward and punish with Love and Hatred; and yet without Love and Hatred in the supreme Being; who yet made these Tutelary Beings for this very Purpose? I will not say, this was doing by another, what might as well have been done by himself: But, most certainly, whatever Dispositions were necessary for this Office of Rewarding and Punishing, there must be originally in the supreme Mind (which appointed these Deities and their Office) Dispositions analogous and correspondent

to them.

But we have had more than enough concerning this first Principle.

VII.

2. " The other Cause, which kept the Phi-" losophers from believing a future State of "Rewards and Punishments," was the wrong Notion they had concerning the Nature of the Soul: Which they all held to be "a discerped " Part of a whole; and that this whole was "God; into whom it was again to be refolved."

p. 380.

As this is the most fingular Affertion in Mr. Warburton's whole Book; has a peculiar Stress laid upon it; and is, in itself, or in it's Consequences, more or less the Subject of the remaining Part of this Performance; it may reasonably be expected it should be supported with very good and clear Evidence; and the Evidence he offers ought for the same Reason to be

strictly attended to.

To prove his Affertion, two Passages are brought from Tully. The first is from the Book, De Divinatione, L. I. C. 49. " A quâ, " scil. Natura Deorum, ut doctissimis sapientis-" simisque placuit, baustos animos & libatos ba-" bemus." The other from the Tusculan. Difputat. L. 5. c. 13. " Humanus autem animus " decerptus ex mente divina, cum alio nullo nifi " cum ipso Deo comparari potest." And because these Passages, and others of a like Nature, which one is perpetually meeting with among the Ancients, might be suspected as being only highly figurative Expressions, we are defired to take Notice of a "Consequence, drawn from "this Principle, and univerfally held," viz. that I av a SIL a. "The

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that the Soul was eternal à parte ante, as well as à parte post. This Consequence will be consi-

dered prefently.—But,

As to the Quotations from Tully: It were greatly to be wished, he had given us them more fairly. Had he added to the first of them what immediately follows; " cumque omnia com-" pleta & referta sint æterno sensu & mente di-" rum animos bumanos commoveri;" a Strain of Rhetoric and of Enthusiasm would surely have appeared to every one. And as to the fecond; Mr. Warburton, in producing it, has left out fuch qualifying Words, as would immediately have discovered a Violence in the Expression; and he has left them out without giving us the least Hint of any Omission. Tully's Words are these: " Humanus autem animus, decerptus ex " mente divina cum alio nullo nifi cum ipfo deo, " SI HOC FAS EST DICTU, comparari potest." It must be left to the Reader's Opinion, whether any other Account can be given of Mr. Warburton's leaving out those Words, " si HOC " FAS EST DICTU," but only that he was apprehensive they would be apt to lead every one to understand Tully's Expression with a Latitude. And to me it is farther evident from hence, that had Tully, notwithstanding his " de-" cerptus ex mente divina," really thought, the human Soul was a Part of a whole, which whole was God; he would never have boggled at comparing the one with the other, with a " st " HOC FAS EST DICTU;" but, on the contrary, must have seen the exact Propriety of it; fince every Part is naturally compared with it's whole. And upon this is grounded the Maxim, which immediately precedes this Paffage; "Pra-" stantia debent ea dici, quæ habent aliquam com-" parationem."

Mr. Warburton however will have it, that Tully's Expressions are to be understood literalby: Because the Ancients drew a Consequence from hence; which Consequence would not have been good in any other but the literal Sense, viz. " The strictly proper Eternity of " the Soul." And for this he brings us an indisputable Authority, the great Cudworth. But what does Cudworth fay? Why, no more than this; That whoever among the Ancients held the Post-Existence of the Soul, held likewise it's Præ-Existence: And gives a Reason for it (a pretty good one) viz. " That what is gene-" rated may be corrupted." But this Reason, Mr. Warburton fays, is Vifionary; and that he quotes Cudworth only for the Fact; " For "which we may fafely take his Word. But " the true Reason was, it's being a natural ". Consequence of the Opinion, that the Soul " was Part of God."

But, as Cudworth fays nothing of this, is any other Authority produced for it, " that the " Ancients held the Præ-Existence of the Soul " in Consequence of their Notion, that the Soul " was a Part of God?" Nothing at all; in the first Edition of Mr. Warburton's Book. But, imagining, I suppose, upon farther Thought, that Divine Legation of Moles. 183

that here was a Defect, he has, in the fecond Edition, endeavoured, in some Measure, to supply it. For after those Words; " The true "Reafon was, it's being a natural Consequence " of the Opinion, that the Soul was Part of "God;" he there adds; " And this Fully " plainly intimates in these Words; Animorum " nulla in terris origo inveniri potest. - His e-" nim in naturis nibil inest, quod vim memoria, " mentis, cogitationis babeat; quod & præterita " teneat, & futura prævideat, & complecti pof-" sit præsentia: quæ sola divina sunt, nec inve-" nietur unquam, unde ad bominem venire pof-" fint, nifi in Deo-Ita quicquid est illud, quod " fapit, quod vult, quod viget, cæleste & divi-" num eft; OB EAMQUE REM ÆTERNUM SIT " NECESSE EST." Frag. De Confol. But whoever reads the whole Paffage without the Breaks, will fee; that Tully's Thought was only this: "That fince upon comparing the evident Fa-" culties of the Soul with the feveral Parts and "Elements of the terrestrial System, we can "find nothing here that corresponds to, or " will any ways account for them; we must " look elfewhere, and higher, for the Original " of them. And as these Faculties, these Vi-" res memoriæ, mentis, cogitationis - are plain-" ly correspondent to our Conceptions of the "divine Nature, we necessarily conclude, the "Origin of them is from God. Whence we " conclude likewise, that the Soul being thus "coelestial and divine, it must for that Reason "be eternal; i. e. will never cease to be." That teris

That this is the Sense of Eternal, will plainly appear upon reading a little farther. "Nec "vero Deus ipse, qui intelligitur à nobis, also "modo intelligi potest, nist mens soluta quædam & "libera, segregata ab omni concretione mortali, "omnia sentiens et movens, ipsaque prædita motu "sempiterno: itaque eandem æternitatem animis "quoque nostris ex seipsa ortis, impartivit." It may, perhaps, seem too minute, to ask how Mr. Warburton came to write "In deo," for "A deo:" The Construction of the Sentence should have directed otherwise.—" Unde ad "bominem—nist A deo."

But what Mr. Warburton wants here in Authorities, he feems to think, may be made up by a Metaphyfical Argument; to shew, what few People will reckon any Thing to the Purpose, viz. " That the Eternity of the Soul " must be a Consequence of it's being a Part of "God." For should this arguing prove ever so good, it must fall short of his End; since it can never prove the Fact, " that the Ancients " held the Præ-Existence of the Soul in Conse-" quence of their Notion, that it was a Part " of God:" Unless we are (what we are not) certain, that the Ancients faw and held all the Consequences of every Notion they had. This before us might be a Consequence, a most necessary one, of their Notion; but they might not fee it, and, confequently, never hold it. But for the Argument.

" If eternal, it must be either independent on God, or a Part of his Substance." This

is not necessary: The Division is incompleat. It may be, neither independent on God, nor a Part of his Substance; i.e. it may be, though eternal, dependent, and no Part of his Substance. This may be, till it can be shewn, " that an " eternal Effect of an eternal Cause is impoffi-" ble." Which to do, will strain any Man's Metaphyficks to the utmost .- Again; The Division is faulty in another Respect, a most essential one indeed, viz. as it is no Division at all. Since the Soul may be both; i. e. it may be independent, and yet a Part of the divine Substance. Nay, it must be independent, for that very Reason, because it is a Part of the divine Substance. Since the divine Substance is certainly independent; the Whole; and then every Part of it must be so too.—He goes on,

"Independent it could not be; for there can be but one Independent of the same Kind of "Substance."—This is too positive. It had been better, if he had added his Reason for this Affertion; which now, for Want of it, must go for nothing. And, on the other hand, it may be said; that it is far more reasonable to think, that there can be but one independent

Substance of any Kind.

"The Ancients, he fays, indeed thought it no Abfurdity to fay, that God and Matter were both felf-existent *." And so, they thought there were "two independent Sub-"stances" of different Kinds. "But then,

^{*} Mr. Warburton cannot mean all the Ancients. Dr. Cudtworth, from feyeral very good Authorities, shews the contrary.

" they allowed no third: Therefore they must " needs conclude, that the Soul was a Part of " God." Here again, for no Third, we have only Mr. Warburton's mere Word; which cannot, upon this Occasion, stand for any thing. But, it is more than possible, they looked upon human Souls, and the Souls of their inferior Gods, as Beings separate both from Matter and the divine Substance. Which they might do, and yet hold the Eternity of them, as well as they held the Eternity of Matter. - " But, as is next observed, though they held the Præ-" and Post-Existence" of the Soul, and, confequently, " attributed a proper Eternity to it," they did not think it was " eternal in it's di-55 flinct and peculiar Existence, but that it was " discerped from the Substance of God in Time, " and would in Time be refolved into it again," p. 384. There is no great Propriety in talking of the Eternity of the Soul, if it is not meant of it's own proper Existence.—However (which is much more to the present Purpose) it is certain, they did not affign any definite Time for it's Discerption from the divine Substance, before it's Entrance into the prefent State of Being; nor for it's Re-union after it leaves the present Body; and the Pra- and Post-Existence they talked of was equally a separate and peculiar Existence. Therefore, notwithstanding that they held a Re-union, fome time or other, with the whole, from which it was difcerped, they might, very confiftently, believe a future State of Rewards and Punishments; i.e. " that the " Souls perfect

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"Souls of Men, when separated from the pre-"sent Body, fare better or worse, according as "their Behaviour has been: And that in this "Method of intermediate Rewards and Punish-

" Method of intermediate Rewards and Punin" ments, all Souls are fitted at last for a Re-

" union with the original Substance."

If some People should think, as they very likely will, that if this be all, these Souls might as well have been kept where they originally were; it is however to be confidered, this is not the proper Place to attempt the Reasonableness of the Notion. All we are concerned in at present is the Fact: And I say, allowing the Fact to be as Mr. Warburton fays it was, it does not by any Means follow, " that the Pythago-" reans and Platonists did not believe a future " State of Rewards and Punishments." On the contrary; the Metempsychosis of both of them might have, and, most probably, had a moral View and Defign. This indeed could not be an eternal State of Rewards and Punishments: But the Eternity of a State is not necesfary to make it a State of Rewards and Punishments. Mr. Warburton will not fay it: And yet, if he does not, all his Reasoning here comes to nothing.

But the Platonists, as he says, and it is true, thought that some Souls were, upon leaving their present Bodies, immediately united with the original Substance: And what suture State of either Rewards or Punishments could these be in? Now, when one considers what Sort of Souls these were, wix thoroughly purished and perfect

perfect ones, that were thus distinguished, one cannot (it is impossible) avoid the Thought, "That this Re-union or Re-infusion (call it as " you please) was looked upon as the most hapby State; and a State attained to only in Con-" Jequence of the utmost Purity and moral Per-" fection: Therefore, a State of Reward."-And therefore again; if there be any Confiftency in the Notion, any View or Defign in fupposing this Re-union of perfect Souls with the original Substance, it must be such a Union as leaves the Personality intire, or a Consciousness of it's own distinct Being. Otherwise, it is plain, this Re-union is to fuch Souls exactly the fame Thing as an utter Annihilation would be. But would, or did Plato, or any other Ancient, mention this Re-union of morally perfect Souls, in any other Way or with any other Defign, than as a most encouraging Motive with every one to aim at and labour after fuch Perfection? Therefore I conclude, that, in the Opinion of the Ancients, the State of Souls after Re-union was not exactly the same as before the Discerption. Antecedent to this there might be, and was, no Consciousness of a distinct Existence; but, after the Separation, as there was one, it might possibly continue notwithstanding any Re-union. As for the Similitude of a Bottle of Sea-Water, (which has been by some made Use of upon this Occasion), it is an imperfect Representation of the Thing, and ought not to be strained too far; as it may eafily be. There is only a general and confused Resemblance; Resemblance; which is the common Case of Similitudes. That there is not an exact Likeness here, may be plain from hence; that whereas the Water in the Bottle has no real Quality or Property different or distinct from the Water in the Ocean; the Soul, when difcerped from the divine Substance, has one, and the most real one in the World, viz. Self-consciousness: Which, as it did not arise merely from it's Discerption, and cannot be accounted for by it; so a Re-union will not immediately destroy it.

I have launched a little more into Reflection on this Head, observing what mighty Use Mr. Warburton makes of those antique Notions of Discerption and Re-union. For so he concludes:

" Thus we fee that this very Opinion of the " Soul's Eternity, which hath made modern

"Writers conclude the Philosophers believed a

" future State of Rewards and Punishments, " was, in Truth, the very Reason why they

" believed it not." I think, I have shewn he is mistaken every Way: However, it must be

left to the Judgment of others.

Refemblance

Notwithstanding; "Though he has shewn, " he fays, that the Philosophers in general held " the Soul's being Part of God, and resolvable " into him; yet, that no Kind of Doubt may " remain, he will prove, in the next Place, " that it was believed in particular by the fa-" mous philosophic Quaternion." Thales, Pythagoras, Plato, Aristotle and the Stoics, p. 387.

He begins with Thales; and quotes Tully, as telling us, in bis Book of Confolation, " that he " always maintained, that the Soul was Part " or Parcel of the divine Substance, and that " it returns to it, as foon as it is disengaged " from the Body." Mr. Warburton not giving us here, as he usually does, the Original, I was curious enough to look into Sigonius's Book, De Consolatione (not being able to meet with this Passage any where else) to see, if there I might find the Words, which are here translated. And I think the Passage is this: " Cujus " (Thaletis) testimonium tale fuit, ut divinos esse " bominum animos, & eos corpore solutos in cælum " remigrare, unde prius venissent, in omni ser-" mone affeveraret." And then the Writer adds: " In quo cum Philosophis illis consensit, quos " quondam Italicos nominavit Antiquitas."-Had Mr. Warburton but translated this latter Part of the Sentence, he would not have wanted any farther Authority for Pythagoras's Opinion. But now, supposing this is the Passage he here translates, what can be thought of such a Translation? In the Latin we find no mention of Part, or Parcel of the divine Substance, nor the Notion of returning to it. This is by no Means a literal Translation of, divinos animos, and, in colum remigrare; and much less is it proved, this is the Meaning of those Expressions. Indeed, it is not attempted.

And it is quite superfluous to shew the contrary; because Mr. Warburton in the 2d Edit. of his Book, has thought fit to drop this Reference

ference to the Book de confolatione, and along with it the Instance of Thales. But as no Notice is taken of his doing this, we are in the Dark for the particular Reasons; and all that can be faid is, and must be, mere guess Work, -It will be proper to observe however, that in Consequence of his omitting now the Instance of Thales, he has been obliged to change his Stile under the next Article; which is that of Pythagoras. For whereas before he had faid, that Tully bore the same Testimony against Pythagoras, as against Thales, he now intirely omitting Thales, only fays, that Tully accuses Pythagoras.-Yet still, as the Word, accuses, imports the finding fome Fault, Care should have been taken, that it was Tully himself, and not a feigned Person, much less an Epicurean, that accused him. The Citation brought here is from the Natura Deor. l. 1. c. 11. " Nam Pythagores, " qui censuit animum esse per naturam rerum " omnem intentum & commeantem, ex quo nostri " animi carperentur, non vidit distractione bu-" manorum animorum discerpi & lacerari Deum." Is not this extremely in the Epicurean Manner, i.e. exceeding gross? And can such a Testimony as this deserve any Regard ?-- Most certainly it expresses nothing of Tully's own Sentiments.

But, it seems, Sextus Empiricus likewise bears his Testimony against Pythagoras and Empedocles, and all the Italic Sect: "That they held "that our Souls were not only of the same Na-"ture with one another and with the Gods, but "like-

" likewife with the irrational Souls of Brutes, " For that there is one Spirit that pervades the " Universe, and serves it for a Soul, which unites " us all together into one." * That Expreffion, of the same Nature with one another, is a very unufual and improper one; and Sextus Empiricus gave no Occasion for making Use of it. Indeed, the exact, determinate Meaning of the Original is not very clear. Yet I think, it may be rendered better thus: " There is a "Communication between us and the Gods. " and even the Brutes too. For there is one Spirit "which pervades the Universe like a Soul, and " thus unites us with them." This feems to be the true Reading, and gives fome Force to the Reason; which, in Mr. Warburton's Tranflation, has none at all; or a most obscure one. -However, it cannot be worth while to enquire farther into Empiricus's Meaning; because, take his Words in what Sense you will, they cannot be to the present Purpose. For what he fays relates to Men in their present Existence, as well as in their future. And if the Union of Souls with the Anima Mundi, does not destroy the Distinction of their Existence at present, there can be no Reason to suppose it should do it hereafter. And, if notwithstanding their Union with the Anima Mundi hereafter, they may have a Consciousness of a

^{*} Οι μεν έν — Φασί μη μόνον ήμιν σρός αλλήλυς κή σεός τυς θεώς είναι τίνα κοινωνίαν, αλλά κή σεός τὰ ἄλοία τῶν ζώων εν γας ὑπάρχειν συνύμα, τὸ διὰ σαντός τὰ κόσμυ διήκον ψυχής τρόπον, τὸ καὶ ἐνῦν ἡμᾶς σεὸς ἐκείνα. Αδυ. Phys.

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distinct Existence, as they have in the present World, the suture State may be a State both of

Rewards and Punishments.

The same may be said to Laertius's Testimony, which comes next. He says, "Pytha-" goras held that the Soul was different from the Life, and was immortal; for that the "Substance from which it was taken was immortal †." This is nothing to the Purpose (though there is Obscurity enough in the real Sense); because if the Soul is taken from an immortal something, yet, as it has a separate, distinct Existence in the present State, so it may have for any Quantity of Time hereaster; i. e. for ever.

Next comes Plato: And concerning him it is observed, that he frequently calls the Soul God, and Part of God, p. 388. But then, on the other Hand, it is well known how full of Figure and bold Metaphors Plato's Stile is. And every one knows too, that both Greeks and Romans were extremely free in the Use and Application of their Words, Osog, Osio, Deus, Divinus .- But yet, that the Words, Osog and Deus, were not applied to the Soul by the Greek and Roman Philosophers merely in a figurative Sense, but, as they thought, with some Propriety, may appear, among many other Authorities, from Tully's Somnium Scip. where the Elder Africanus thus affures the younger, (agreeably to Plato's Sentiments,) " Deum te-scito

^{* —} αθάνατόν τε είναι αὐτην (ψυχην) ἐπειδήπες καὶ τὸ ἀφ΄ δ ἀπίσπας αι αθάναθον εςί. Vit. Phil.

"esse: Siquidem Deus est, qui viget, qui sentit, qui meminit, qui providet, qui tam regit & moderatur & movet id corpus cui præpositus est, quam bunc mundum ille princeps Deus: Et, ut mundum ex quadam parte mortalem ipse Deus æternus, sic fragile corpus animus sempiternus movet." Upon which Passage Macrobius thus comments: "Anima, qui verus homo est, ab omni conditione mortalitatis aliena est, adeo ut ad imitationem Dei mundum regentis regat & ipsa corpus dum a se animatur. Ideo Physici mundum magnum hominem, & hominem brevem mundum esse dixerunt. Per similitudines igitur cæterarum prærogativarum quibus Deum anima videtur imitari, animam Deum & prisci

" Philosophorum & Tullius dixit."

I cannot but here, upon Occasion of mentioning this Piece of Tully's and Macrobius's Comment upon it, observe; that though it is quite throughout Platonical, afferting the Dignity and Immortality of the Soul in the plainest Terms that Language affords, Macrobius was so far from imagining this Dream of Scipio's to be only a mere popular, exoterical Tract, that when he has explained that Part of it where the present Life is said to be Death, he concludes with telling us, that Tully's Learning and Wisdom had fetched this Sentiment from the most retired Part of Philosophy. " ut arbitror, de vita & morte animæ definitio " liquet : quam de adytis Philosophiæ doctrina & " Sapientia Ciceronis elicuit." And towards the End of his Comment he tells us farther, that in that

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that Part of the Somn. Scipion. which treats of the Self-motion and Immortality of the Soul, Tully had reached the very Summit of Philofophy. " At cum de motu & immortalitate ani-" mæ disputat, cui nibil constat inesse corporeum, " cujusque essentiam nullius sensus, sed sola ratio " deprebendit; illic ad altitudinem philosophiæ " adscendit." And concerning the whole Piece he thus concludes: "Vere igitur pronunciandum " est, n bil boc opere perfectius, quo universe " philosophiæ continetur integritas." So far was Macrobius from imagining, that it was nothing else but a mere popular, exoterical Harangue. would only just observe farther, that he had the fame Sentiment of Plato's Phadon, calling it, "Librum illum divinum de immortalitate " animæ."

Well; but Plutarch tells us *, "that Pytha"goras and Plato held the Soul to be immor"tal; for that launching out into the Soul of
"the Universe, it returns to it's Parent and
"Original." But this Sense does not seem capable of being fetched out of Plutarch's Words,
avaxwere veros; to spose to spose is not, "to return to
"it's Parent and Original;" because spose signifies, neither Parent nor Original: But this;
"being of like Nature or Kind," or "of the
"fame or like Original;" and had it been accordingly rendered here, this Passage from Plutarch could have signified nothing. Since the
Soul might be said to return to the Anima Mun-

^{* —} άφθαρτον είναι την ψυχήν, εξιέσαν γας είς την τε σαντίς ψυχήν, αναχωρείν σερός το δμοδενές. De placit. Philof.

di, it's Like, or which was of the same Nature with itself, without supposing, that upon that Account it should lose it's distinct and personal Existence.

Arnobius's Testimony, which comes next, is not worth confidering, upon any Account.-However, I have put it in the Margin *; and the learned Reader knows very well, how difficult enough it is to answer such Questions, even upon the common Notion of the human Soul. And, even generally speaking, such Interroga-

tories are best passed over in Silence.

The third of the Quaternion is Aristotle +; and he fays of the Mind, or Intellect, that it " alone (by Way of Distinction from the fensi-" tive Soul) enters from without and is alone " divine." All the Stress here lies upon the Epithet, OErov; which yet is a Word used by these ancient Writers with such a Latitude, that nothing can be determined merely from it. But then, it feems, Aristotle distinguishes again " concerning this Mind or Intellect, and makes " it twofold; Agent and Patient. The former of which he concludes to be immortal, and " the latter corruptible." Cudworth thought this a very unintelligible Notion; but Mr. Warburton will explain it. " Had that great Man " reflected on the general Doctrine of the To e, he would have feen the Paffage was plain

cealc

^{*} Ipse denique animus, qui immortalis à vobis, & Deus esse narratur, cur in ægris æger fit, in infantibus stolidus, in senectute defellus ?--- Adv. Gent. + Λείπεθαι δε τον νών μόνον θάςαθεν επεισιέναι, η θείοι είναι μόνοι.

" and eafy; and that Ariftotle from the com-" mon Principle of the human Soul's being " Part of the divine Substance, here draws a " Conclusion against a future State of separate Ex-" istence."-p. 389, 390. We must have much better Proofs, before we can believe the general Doctrine of the To Ev, and that it was a common Principle, that the Soul was a Part of the divine Substance. As for what has been done already, it really amounts to nothing: And as he has not made it appear, that Aristotle knew any Thing of this Doctrine, he will excuse me if I do not think Aristotle intended to draw any Thing from it; much less the Conclusion which he speaks of, viz. against a future State of separate Existence. For, whatever may follow from Mr. Warburton's Doctrine of the To Ev, which he charges upon the Philosophers, it does by no means follow from the Notion, " that the Soul is a Part " of the divine Substance." For, as it does not follow, because it is a Part of the divine Substance, that it has not now, at present, a separate Existence; so, notwithstanding it's being such a Part, it may have a separate Existence; for any Time, and beyond, and for ever. And therefore I conclude, that Aristotle, who certainly knew, as well as any Man, the Nature of a Consequence, and the Manner of drawing it, never intended from fuch a Principle to draw fuch a Conclusion, against a future State of Separate Existence. Neither is it easy to come into his Paraphrase of Aristotle's Words. " The particular Sensati-" ons of the Soul (the passive Intelligent) will

" cease after Death; and the Substance of it " (the Agent Intelligent) will be refolved into " the Soul of the Universe." It may be allowed, that Aristotle might and did call the particular Senfations of the Soul the paffive Intelligent: (or the Intelligent, quaterus paffive:) But it cannot by any Means be allowed, that he could abuse Language and Philosophy so much, as to call the Substance of the Soul, i. e. the Substance stript of all it's intellectual and active, i. e. of all it's proper Faculties, the Agent Intelligent. No; by the Agent Intelligent, he probably, meant the Soul of Man quaterus rational, or, in a Word, the Mind. Neither does Mr. Warburton fo intirely confide in his own Paraphrase, as not to have Recourse to the Commentators for Aristotle's Meaning: " Who interpret Agent Intelligent to fignify the " divine Intellect;" and fays Aristotle himself " fully justifies this Gloss, in calling it Oeiou, di-" vine." To overlook the Slenderness of such arguing, I would only observe again, (as before with respect to the Mind's being Part of the divine Substance,) that the Agent Intelligent is as much divine, and divine Intelligent, now at prefent, as it can be at any Time hereafter: And if, notwithstanding that, it has a distinct separate Existence now, it may have the same for ever.

Lastly, come the Stoics; and Seneca is to speak the first for them. It is strange Mr. Warburton could go no higher than him; one, whom he has branded for a Mongrel, and has too cited him before for the Mortality of the

Soul.

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Soul.—However, what does he fay now? " * And why should you not believe something " divine to be in him, who is indeed Part of " the Godhead? That whole in which we are " contained, is one, and that one is God; we " being his Companions and Members." p. 391. It may be fufficient to observe upon this; that (to overlook the Appearance of a Rant in the Expression) it proves nothing at all to the prefent Purpose. Since, how much soever we may be Parts of God and his Companions and Members, (who would not reckon this to be all Flourish?) as we have a distinct Existence and Consciousness now, we may have the same for any Time hereafter: And as we fuffer, or are eafy and happy, as we behave now, fo we may do and be for any Time hereafter, and for ever: And confequently, notwithstanding this, there may be a future State of Rewards and Punishments.

After Seneca comes Epictetus (who, by the Way, was cited too before for the Mortality of the Soul); and he says +, "The Souls of Men "have the nearest Relation to God, as being "Parts or Fragments of him, discerped and "torn from his Substance." As Mr. Warburton, in a marginal Note upon this Passage, cannot forbear smiling at Dr. More for his Reslection upon it, I am afraid a great many will be apt to sinile at him for endeavouring to make the

† Συναφείς τῷ θεῷ, ἀτε αὐτὰ μόςια ἔσαι κὰ ἀποσπάσμα]α:

^{*} Quid est autem, cur non existimes in eo divini aliquid existere qui Dei pars est? totum hoc, quo continemur, & unum est & Deus: & Socii ejus sumus & membra.

most of Epictetus's Words, and even paraphrafing, instead of translating them. The Original is not very correct and confiftent. For συναθείς and αποσπάσμα a express contrary Ideas: Which indeed he endeavours to hide in his Translation; rendering the former Word, by having the nearest Relation to God. Yet how Parts, by being discerped and torn from God, can have the nearest Relation to him, no one can understand. And whereas, in the rendering above it is faid, discerped and torn from the Substance of God, there is not a Word in the Original that answers to it. And once more, whereas he fmiles at the good Doctor, for looking upon these as metaphorical Expressions, furely he will not undertake to prove that they are any Thing more than that.

Lastly; Antoninus says *, " (To die) is not "only according to the Course of Nature, but "of great Use to it" (surely, συμφέρου αὐτη is a very obscure Thought, and is not elucidated by any Thing that follows). We should "consider, how closely Man is united to the "Godhead, and in what Part of him that Union resides; and what will be the Condition of that Part or Portion, when it is resolved (into the Anima Mundi)." Such a Manner of translating will make any Thing of any Thing. "And in what Part of him that Union resides."—Besides that it is an Absurdity; since

Τέτο μὶν τοι ἐ μόνοι Φύσεως ἔς Γοι ἐς ἐν, ἀλλά και συμφέροι αὐτῆ αῶς ἄπίελαι θεῷ ἀνθρωπ. κ) κατά τι αὐτἔ μές. κ) πῶς ἔχη ὅται ἐιαχίνθαι τὸ τὰ ἀνθρώπα τῶτο μόριοι.

Union cannot reside in any Part, what is there in the Original that expresses even the least of this? is nará Ti aura piepo, is, and in some Sense (or secundum quid) a Part of him.—Perhaps the Passage should be rendered thus; "How near-" ly Man is related to God, and, as it were, a " Part of him: And how it will be with this " Part of Man (by which he is related to God) " upon a Diffolution."-Mr. Warburton owns this Paffage is obscure; but instead of endeavouring to clear it up, only observes the different Manners in which the Critics read it. And I think we may fafely pass it over, as nothing to the present Purpose. Only let me be allowed to fay; that taking it in his Sense, or supposing fuch a Resolution of the Soul at Death into the Anima Mundi, as he is here endeavouring to prove, it is a poor Confolation against Death; not at all better in any Respect than Annibilation.

And thus we are got through the famous philosophic Quaternion; whose Opinion concerning the Nature of the Soul, was such as made it impossible they should believe a future State of Rewards and Punishments. I have considered all that has been offered upon this Head; and, unless I am much mistaken, have made it appear, that all the Evidence here produced is just nothing. And for This Reason in particular, and more especially; "Because, however the "Soul might (i. e. in the obscure Opinion and "Talk of some of the old Philosophers) be "originally a Part of God and resolvable into "him

" him again, yet, as it has, confestedly in this " World, a diffinct feparate Existence and a pro-" per Self-confciousness, it may, for any Thing " that has been produced from this Quaternion " to the contrary, have the fame Existence and " the fame Consciousness for and beyond any " given Time hereafter. And consequently, " that notwithstanding their Notion of the " Soul's being Part of God and refolvable into " him again, they might hold a future State of " Rewards and Punishments." Therefore Mr. Warburton's Conclusion must be wrong: "This " then being the general Notion of the Philo-" fophers concerning the Nature of the Soul, " there could not possibly be any Room for " their believing a future State of Rewards and " Punishments." p. 393. Since it has been fhewn, that notwithstanding that Notion, there was Room enough for them to believe the Reality of fuch a State.

But in the next Place, Mr. Warburton proceeds to give us fuch a Solution of a Difficulty (which here comes in his Way) as must be efleemed very extraordinary and furprifing. "How " much, fays he, the Ancients understood the "Disbelief of this (a future State) to be the " Confequence of holding the other, (the Soul's " being Part of God, and resolvable into him) " we have a very remarkable Instance in Stra-" bo; who, speaking of the Religion of Moses, " thus expresses himself. He affirmed and " taught, that the Egyptians and Libyans con-" ceived amis, in representing the Divinity un-

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" der the Form of Beafts and Cattle: Nor were " the Greeks less mistaken to picture him in " an human Shape. For God was only one. " which contains all Mankind, the Earth and " Sea, and which we call Heaven, the World. " and the Nature of all Things," p. 394. This Mr. Warburton thinks is the rankest Spinofism. On the contrary, I cannot but reckon this Paffage full of good Sense, and that in the latter Part of it, (where the Spinofilm is supposed to lve,) there is an excellent Reason given against the low and foolish Conceptions which all Mankind entertained concerning the Godhead. In Opposition to these, Strabo makes Moses to give us this Account of God. "En TETO MONON TO περίεχου ήμας απάντας η γην η θάλατταν, ο καλέμεν έρανόν και κόσμον και την των όντων Φύσιν. Which Words appear to me fo far from expreffing any unworthy Sentiment of God, that on the contrary they are a noble Description of the Immensity and Omnipresence of the Deity. " God is only one, and fo far from being limit-" ed by any Thing, that he contains and en-" compaffes all Things." And though it may be hazardous to guess at the particular Passage or Passages of the Law, which might lead to this Notion of the Deity; yet it feems not impossible, nor perhaps unlikely, that he might have his Eye upon Deut. iv. 39. Know therefore this Day, and confider in thine Heart, that the Lord he is God in Heaven above and upon the Earth beneath: There is none elfe. The latter Part of which the 70 translate thus: 1 is is is ËTL

Err wλην αὐτε: Which is full as much for Mr. Warburton's Purpose as what Strabo says. But, taking Strabo's Words in Mr. Warburton's Sense, I cannot but be of his Opinion, that a more perverse Construction could not be put upon the Doctrine of Moses.

But then, how came so candid a Writer as Strabo to fall into this Error? And bere it is Mr. Warburton has quite surprized us. " The true " Solution is this: Strabo well knew, that all " who held the To a denied, and necessarily, a " future State of Rewards and Punishments. "And finding in the Law of Moles—the Omif-" fion of fuch future State—he concluded back-" wards, that the Reason could be nothing less " than the Author's believing the To Ev." A BACKWARD Conclusion indeed, if ever there was one! And fuch a one too as nothing but the warmest Imagination could have suggested. And admit, that all who held the To Ev, denied a future State, did all who denied a future State, hold the Doctrine of the To Ev? Mr. Warburton himself will not say it. Therefore, though Moses said nothing of a future State, it will not follow, that he held the To ev: And Strabo's backward Conclusion was a very filly one. FallVent Pripagaras and

Mr. Warburton's last Attempt is, to consider the Original of this Notion of the το έν. And whereas it might be suspected the Greeks borrowed it (as they did many Parts of their Learning) from the Egyptians, he, on the contrary, will shew, that it was intirely of Grecian Extract:

tract: And he will give the very best Evidence in the World for it; viz. " The Discovery of " the Inventors." p. 399. And these were Pherecydes Sirus, and Thales. The Proof of which is as follows. " Tully speaking of Phe-" recydes Sirus, the Master of Pythagoras, tells " us he was the first among the Greeks that af-" firmed the Souls of Men to be eternal." " Pherecydes Syrius primum dixit animos homi-" num esse sempiternos-banc opinionem disci-" pulus ejus Pythagoras maxime confirmavit." Tusc. Disp. L. 1. c. 16. This is perhaps the most extraordinary Quotation in the whole Book, and will deferve to be thoroughly confidered from all bluck from 1981

The whole Passage, as it is in the Original, is thus : " Itaque credo equidem etiam alios tot fe-" culis; fed, quod literis extet, Pherecydes Sy-" rius primus dixit animos bominum effe sempi-" ternos." The plain, obvious Meaning of which appears to be this: " That Tully did not " doubt but many had held the Immortality of " the Soul before Pherecydes Syrus; but he is " the first that is upon Record; he is the first " whose Name is mentioned." And then Tully goes on to tell us, that Pythagoras had it from Pherecydes, and Plato from Pythagoras; and that Plate supported the Opinion with Reasons; which the others had not done. " But how-" ever, fays Tully to the young Man his Auditor, " unless you are of another Mind, we will drop " Plato's Reasons, and e'en give up this HOPE " of Immortality." " Hanc totam SPEM im-" mortalitatis

" mortalitatis relinquamus." In what Manner this was spoken by Tully, and how it is to be understood by us, appears from the young Man's Answer and Tully's own Reply. " A. An tu. " cum me in summam expectationem adduxeris, de-" seris? Errare, mehercule, mals cum Platone " --- quam cum ISTIS vera fentire. M. Macte " virtute; ego enim ipse cum eodem ipso non in-" vitus erraverim." From hence it is plain, that whatever was meant by the Immortality here mentioned, it was fomething in it's own Nature pleafing, defirable, and the Object of HOPE; and this likewise to such a Degree, that the young Man could not endure the Thought of losing so delightful a Prospect; and he expresses himself with equal Displeasure and Contempt concerning those Philosophers, who were opposite to Plato in this Point, and imagined the Soul died with the Body. " He had rather " think falfely with Plato, than be in the right "with those worthless, minute Philosophers-" quam cum ISTIS vera sentire." And Tully commends his Resolution, and affures him it was his own Sentiment. That contemptuous Pronoun 18T1 in Tully's Stile often means the Epicureans: Who were, every one knows, the most famous Sect that stood up for the Mortality of the Soul. Here it will include all that agreed with them in this their favourite Tenet .-

Now apply all this to Mr. Warburton's Notion of the to by, and suppose that Tully meant it in this Sense, when he says "that Pherecydes " was the first that afferted the Immortality of

" the

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" the Soul; which Notion Pythagoras had " from him, and Plato supported with Rea-" fons." Suppose this, and what Sense will there be in representing such Immortality as the Object of HOPE, or, indeed, making it better in any Respect than the Immortality of the Epicureans, or the Immortality of the Spinofifts? If it is not better than either of them, but indeed the very fame with one of them, how impossible had it been for Tully to represent it, as he does, here and in every other Part of this Disputation, as the great and even the highest Object of our Wishes and Expectations? Therefore it must be as plain as the Light at Noonday, that Tully understood Pherecydes to mean the common Immortality of the Soul; and that this was what Pythagoras learnt from him; and Plato of Pythagoras: Which Notion Plato philosophised upon and supported with Reasons; and these Reasons Tully details out in the following Part of this Disputation. And whoever peruses these Reasons will see, not only that they have no imaginable Relation to the To Ev Doctrine, but that the whole Defign and Force of them is to prove, that the Soul is fo far from depending upon the Body, that it has a proper Life in itself, and such a one as it will be better capable of enjoying hereafter, when separated from the Body and not incumbred. any longer with Flesh and Blood.

Now for Mr. Warburton's Reflections upon this Passage. "A very extraordinary one, says "he, if it be taken in the common Sense of

" the Interpreters; that Pherecydes was the " first, or first of the Greeks, that taught the "Immortality of the Soul, nothing can be " more false or extravagant. Tully himself " knew the contrary—and Plutarch affures us, " the Author and Original is not known." Tully does not fay, nor does any Body that I know of understand him as faying, that no one before Pherecydes afferted the Immortality of the Soul. Both he and Phytarch, it is allowed. knew the contrary very well. But then too neither of them might be able to mention expressly the Name of any one Person, that had afferted this Notion before him. And this is what Tully fays expressly; but then at the same Time that he tells us this, he tells us likewife, that he did not at all doubt but many more had done it; though he could not fay, who they were. Pherecydes is the first that is upon Record .-

He goes on; " They therefore must mean " quite another Thing (from the common Im-" mortality of the Soul) which the exact Pro-" priety of the Word, Sempiternus, will lead " us to. Donatus the Grammarian tells us; " Sempiternum ad Deos, perpetuum ad Homines " proprie pertinet. Here then a proper Eter-" nity is attributed to the Soul. A Confequence " that could only fpring, and does necessarily " foring, from the Principle of the Soul's be-"ing Part of God." Then he concludes; " Thus has Tully given us an illustrious Piece " of History; that not only fixes the Doctrine

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" of the ro is to Greece, but records the In" ventor of it."—It would be endless to be

particular in remarking upon this Paffage.

Tully could never intend to give us any Thing relating at all to the ro ev; fince it does not appear from any of his Writings, that he was at all acquainted with it. And here in particular he could not intend it, because it has no possible Connexion with the Subject he is upon. So far from it, that it is directly contrary to his Defign. The Doctrine of the ro ev, Mr. Warburton himfelf fays, is utterly inconfistent with the Notion of a future State of separate Existence and Selfconsciousness: But such a State is what Tully is here afferting and endeavouring to prove: Such a State as this Tully plainly meant Pherecydes to be the first Person that History expressly gives an Account of as afferting and maintaining: He mentions him upon this Occasion with no Marks at all of Diflike or Difapprobation, but the contrary: He fays, Pythagoras had the Notion from Pherecydes, and greatly propagated it: And Plato took it from Pythageras, and supported it with Reasons. This same Notion Tully endeavours in what follows to prove and establish in the Manner of Plato, and in his own. From whence it follows, as plain as can be, that Tully took Pherecydes's Notion to be the same with his own; and if his own was not grounded upon, nor any Ways connected with, the Doctrine of the to ev, neither was Pherecydes's. And as for Tully's using the Word Sempiternus upon this Occasion, no Argument can be drawn from thence

thence any Way. For, even supposing the Word to be used here in what Mr. Warburton. following Donatus, fays is the strictly proper Sense, for aternitas a parte ante as well as post, yet the Doctrine of the To ev will not follow; fince an eternal Effect of an eternal Cause might be, and probably has been, all along held by many, as no inconfiftent or unlikely Notion. And supposing it to be used here with a Latitude, and to mean no more than a future indefinite or eternal Existence, as the Words, immortalis, æternus, are known to do very often, then there is no Ground at all for his Inference. And why may it not be understood in this Sense? Will Donatus, or Mr. Warburton fay it is never used so by any Body? Or, will they deny, that Tully ever uses it thus? This cannot be: It is impossible to read Tully's Writings without meeting with it perpetually *. And, laftly; this is the very Sense in which it is used here; as has been, I imagine, made evident from the

^{*} If any one can make a Doubt of it, he may cast his Eye upon the following Passages. Tully professes of himself, that he had "mortales inimicitias, sempiternas amicitias." Orat. pro Rabir. In the 4th Orat. against Catiline, the Word is used to signify a continued Duration, though merely equal to the present Life. "Vineula sempiterna certe ad singularem panam" nefarii sceleris inventa sunt." Just in the same Manner as aternum is used, towards the End; "aternum bellum." In the 14th Philippic it is used more properly; "Memoria bene" reddita vita sempiterna." Offic. 1. 3. c. 22. speaking of Paulus Amilius he says, "Nihil domum suam prater memoriam" nominis sempiternam detulit." And, once more, in the same Sense he plainly uses it in this present Disputation: "Sin autem" perimit (supremus ille dies) ac delet omnino, quid melius, quam in mediis vita laboribus obdormiscere, & ita conniventem sonno "consopiri Sempiterno? c. 49.

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Thus then; here is no proper Eternity attributed to the Soul; but if there was, it would not follow, that the Soul was in any proper, or in Mr. Warburton's Sense, a Part of God: And Tully had no Intention here to give us a Piece of History relating to the $\tau \delta$ wat all; (a Notion he does not appear either here or any where else to have had the least Knowledge of;) and much less to fix this Notion to Greece, or indeed any where else: Or, lastly, to determine any Thing at all about the Inventor of it.

It may be expected fome Notice should be taken of the different Manner in which this Citation from Tully appears in the 2d Edit. of Mr. Warburton's Book: Where he has made this Addition to it: " Quod literis extet Pherecydes "Syrius, &c." But this is so far from mending the Matter, that it seems to make it much worfe. Since, whereas before the Error might possibly be thought to have been involuntary, there is now hardly Room for fo favourable a Construction. One would think, he must, upon a Review, have the whole Passage before him in the coolest and most deliberate Manner; and therefore could not cite it wrong a fecond Time through mere Inattention. And indeed the Manner of citing it this second Time, appears to me rather worse than the first. Because now he makes the Sentence complete, and not only mentions Tully's Testimony, but refers to the Authorities upon which it is grounded; the P 2 latter latter of which was omitted before. And once more, if it was not thought proper to give us now this fecond Time any more than half the Sentence, yet furely we should have had this half fair and entire: And then the Particle fed had not been omitted. SED quod literis exflet, &c. and the inferting this Particle would have discovered a plain Reference to something going before: And the Consequence upon viewing the whole Passage must immediately be, that every one would fee it was in no respect for the Author's Purpose.

And furely, when he fays, " he makes no " Question but it was Pherecydes's broaching " this Impiety—that made him pass—for an " Atheift," he has the poorest Ground for his Confidence; especially when Elian gives, so expressly, another Reason; and such a one as in all Ages and Places, has been ever made the Ground of fuch a Charge. Let a Man deny, or merely doubt concerning the Gods or Religion of his Country, and strait he will be reproached as believing in no God and having no Religion. Socrates, it is well known, did not go fo far, yet he got the Imputation and Charge of Impiety: And died in Consequence of it. Certainly, Mr. Warburton must be fond of this Notion concerning Pherecydes, when he can fupport it in fuch a Manner, by Arguments that have not the least Weight in them; no, nor fo much as an Appearance of it. What an Argument is that, which follows here? Suidas tells us, Pherecydes had no Master; ix εσχηκέναι natrwhat follows from thence? Therefore he had no Notions in common with any Body; but as they were all of his own forming, so they were

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Yet, in the next Place, we are told, there is " as positive Attestation for Thales's" being the Inventor of this impious Notion, as for Pherecyaes. For Laertius tells us, " Some affirm " him to be the first who held the Souls of Men " to be immortal *." And here what Sort of Immortality is meant, appears from the Word used to express it: Which is ἀθάνα] ; " an " Epithet appropriated to the Immortality of " the Gods, as αφθαρίω is to that of Men." A Piece of Criticism just as well founded, as that before upon Sempiternus and Perpetuus. And Mr. Warburton may himself compare it with a Citation of his own presently after, p. 408. Marg. Note: Where ἀφθαρίο is as plainly and emphatically applied to the Deity, as abavalo can possibly any where be. The divalar mepoφθαρηναι τε άφθάρτε η άπόλεσαι τε θεε; and again, with his own Quotation from Herodotus, p. 92. where the Historian fays, "The Egyptians " were the first who said that (or how) the " Soul of Man was immortal." ως αυθρώπε ψυχή άθάνα] εςί. Does the Word, άθάνα] , here fignify a strictly proper Eternity; i. e. a parte ante as well as post? Look into the Historian, and it will plainly appear to be otherwise. And,

Ενισι δί και αὐτὸν πεωτον εἰπεῖν φασίν αθανάτες τὰς ψυχάς. 1

P 3 laftly;

lastly; the very Etymology of the Word should have hindered from putting such a Construction upon it; and any living Being may be, with the utmost Propriety, said to be abavalo, who, whatever was his Original, never dies. And, to keep to the same Writer, when Herodotus tells us, that Megabyzus, the Persian General, had lest an immortal Memory abavalov unique, among the Hellespontians by a certain Saying of his, there mentioned, l. 4. c. 144. or when he mentions the Intag Tes abavatiζον as, l. 4. c. 93, (the Meaning of which Epithet as applied to them is presently after explained) is or can be any other Duration intended than a posterior Eternity?

Mr. Warburton proceeds with his Observati-

ons upon this Testimony of Laertius.

" The fame Objection holds here against un-" derstanding this Passage in the common Sense, " as in the Case of Pherecydes." - But this Objection, I think, has been shewn to be nothing in the Case of Pherecydes .- " And be-" fides, we cannot doubt, he fays, of the other " Meaning; when we reflect on what the An-" cients tell us of Thales's holding the Soul to " be auronivilor, a Self-moving Nature."-Why, what Impiety can there be in this Epithet? On the contrary, would it be a rational Soul, if it was not autoxivnt ? And, if it be autoxiva @, must it for that Reason be eternal a parte ante? Well; but he held too " the "World was animated." - So did a great many others, without holding the To Ev. - And, lattly;

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laftly; Tully tells us, he held "the Soul was "Parcel of the divine Substance."—But it has not appeared, that Tully says any such Thing.

At length Mr. Warburton comes, p. 401. to fum up the Argument relating to these two Inventors of the 70 %. Which he does thus:

"Thales and Pherecydes are said to be the first "who taught the Immortality of the Soul."—
This is not setting out accurately. One or the other is said to be the first. No one mentions them both for this Opinion. Tully gives it for Pherecydes against every Body: But how? Not that he was absolutely the first; but that no one else in particular is expressly mentioned by Name before Pherecydes: He is the first upon Record. Tully plainly supposes, nay he tells us, he does not doubt, but many had held the Soul's Immortality before Pherecydes; but no Name is recorded more ancient than his. And in the same Sense may Laertius be understood.

He goes on; "In the common Sense of this "Affertion, they were not the first, and known "not to be so by those who afferted it."—Can Mr. Warburton then mention any one who afferted the Immortality of the Soul, in the common Notion of it, earlier than those two? If he can, it will be to the Purpose: But till he does (what was more than Tully could do;) we must look upon this only as a mere Affertion.

Indeed, in the 2d Édition, Mr. Warburton tells us, Homer had taught the common Doctrine of the Immortality long before Pherccydes,

P 4

and that Tully knew it; and that Herodotus likewife had recorded it to have been taught by the Egyptians from the earliest Times. - What Tully would fay, were he alive, to these two Instances, no Body can be positive. Whether he would allow of a Lapfus Memoriæ (something of which feems to have happened to him in the Case of Regulus above) is doubtful. But what may be faid is this: The latter Instance is not to the Purpose. For though the common Immortality was a well known Doctrine among the Egyptians, yet the Author of it among them is not known. But Tully is speaking of the Author of it. And if the Author of it among the Egyptians should be known, and known to be much earlier than Pherecydes, yet this again would be nothing to Tully; who, most probably, is here to be understood as speaking of the Greeks only. And as to the other Instance; fome (whatever Tully would do) will deny that Homer ever does teach the Doctrine of the proper Immortality. But then, in the next Place, granting it, yet Homer was a Poet; and if he mentions this Notion, it is only in the poetical Way; but Tully confiders it as a philosophical Opinion, and, perhaps, had only a Mind to fay, who was the first Philosopher, that is recorded to have held and taught it.

He proceeds; "The same Antiquity informs "us, they held the Doctrine of the $\tau \delta$ e, which "commonly went by the Name of the Doctrine of the Immortality."—Neither of these Affertions appears to have any Grounds; nor

has been at all supported by Mr. Warburton: What little, extremely little, Evidence he has produced for the former, has been confidered; and as to the latter, he has produced absolutely nothing.—" Nor is any earlier on Record than " they, for holding that Principle."-This is very true; for neither they, nor any Body elfe, are on Record for holding the Principle of the το εν; at least nothing has hitherto appeared. But, if by that Principle could be meant, the common Doctrine of the Soul's Existence after Death, no Names are earlier upon Record for afferting it, than Pherecydes and Thales (i.e. in the Opinion of Tully, and those whom Laertius fpeaks of) - "We conclude therefore, that " those who tell us they were the first who " taught the Immortality of the Soul, necessa-" rily meant, that they were the first, who " held it to be Part of the divine Substance." Which is fuch a Conclusion, as Mr. Warburton himself cannot now approve of. It must be left however to the Judgment of others.

Only, in Regard to Mr. Warburton, it should be observed farther; that at the End of summing up this Argument, he, in the 2d Edition, adds what follows; "This, I say, we must "conclude, though Plutarch * had not express" ly affirmed it of one of them; where he says, "that Thales was the first who taught the Soul to be an eternal-moving, or self-moving Nature: But none but God is such a Nature;

^{*} Θαλής ἀπεφήνατο Πεωτο την ψυχήν φύσην ἀνικίνητον ή ἀὐτοκίνητον.

" therefore the Soul, in his Opinion, was Part " of the divine Substance; and he was the first " of that Opinion." The whole of this Argument lies in Thales's speaking of the Soul as an eternal or felf-moving Nature; or rather, in Plutarch's Manner of representing his Notion. Which, most certainly, by the Way, is not the most correct. For asiming expresses more than auroxivers, as a Being may be the latter, without being the former; if all be supposed here to fignify a proper Eternity; as Mr. Warburton would understand it. And if it signifies here, as most probably it does, only a posterior Eternity, the two Words are not immediately convertible, and do not express the same Thing. This is plain from Plato's Conduct, long before Plutarch's Time. Plato argued from the Soul's having a Principle of Motion in itself to it's Capacity of moving for ever; i.e. from it's being αὐτοκίνητω, to it's being ἀεικίνητω. And this is the Argument that is given us at large by Tully in his first Tusculan: And more, this is the Argument which Macrobius tells us had been bandied about between the Platonists and the Aristotelians. And as the Platonists certainly had much the better Reason on their Side in this Inftance, if it was commonly feen and acquiefced in, this would in Time make these two Words, αεικίνητ and αυτοκίνητ , become convertible Terms; fuch as might be used in many Cases indifferently for one another. And thus it might probably be in Plutarch's Time; and a Man would be justified in faying, aemingTO & autoningto, and, vice versa, witoningto à asssivato. But then this Difference in these two Manners of speaking is to be taken Notice of: The Particle & in the former is equivalent to this, Or, which is much the same Thing; in the latter it is, Or, and therefore. Mr. Warburton feems to think, grounding himself merely upon Plutarch's Expression, these two Words among the Ancients fignified exactly the fame Thing. But this is contrary to Plato's, to Tully's, to Macrobius's Sense of the Matter; and, if it was added, contrary to common Sense, it would not be straining the Thing too far. And as for the Reasoning built upon it, that appears to be as bad as any Thing. " But none but " God is fuch a Nature; therefore the Soul, in " Thales's Opinion, was Part of the divine Sub-" stance." For can it be known, that Thales thought an eternal Effect of an eternal Cause an Impoffibility?

We now go on to another Proof, "that the "Doctrine of the to is purely Grecian,"—which will be thought a very extraordinary one,

viz. p. 402.

The Greeks indeed were the Inventors of this Notion; "but as they had their first Learning "from Egypt, we may be affured, that fome "Egyptian Principles led them into it." And this is faid in Opposition to those, (who they are is not so well known) that would have the Notion itself to be Egyptian, and not Grecian. Now, it will be no Venture to say, that if any Egyptian Tenets can be specified, which evidently

dently lead to this Notion, a great deal more will be done towards making the Notion purely Egyptian, than has been yet done to make it Grecian. But here we are much disappointed

ears, had they alwaysnings

The first Tenet was, it feems, the Doctrine of the Metempsychosis, or Præ-existence of the Soul. This was invented, we are told, to account for the Origin of Evil. How far it will answer that End, is not to the present Purpose. What is here wanted is, to fee the Connexion between the Doctrine of Præ-existence, and that of the to by; which may shew us, how easy it was for the Greeks to flide from the one into the other. And furely nothing can be more furprifing than the Manner in which it is endeavoured to shew this .- " The necessary "Confequence of the Doctrine, (of the Me-" tempfychofis, i. e. in a præ-existent State) was " that the Soul is older than the Body."-If this is confidered as a Consequence, it is a very odd one; however, the Thing is clear enough. " So having taught before, (viz. in their Doc-" trine of a future State of Rewards and Pu-" nishments) that the Soul was eternal à parte " post, and now (viz. by the Doctrine of the "Metempsychosis) that it had an Existence be-"fore it came into the Body; the Greeks, to " give a Roundness to their System, taught on " the Foundation of that Præ-existence, that it " was eternal too a parte ante." But, furely, the Greeks, especially the Philosophers, and Pherecydes and Tkales in particular, were not fuch defultory

defultory Reasoners, as to infer the Soul's existing, properly, from Eternity; because the Egyptians faid, it did not begin to exist when the Body did: And this merely to give a Roundness to their System. Certainly, had they always reafoned at this Rate, neither they nor their Syftems had deserved or met with any Regard.

Yet there immediately follows another Instance of the Volatility of their Genius and Rotundity of their System, still more remarkable than the former. For, in the next Place, we are told, " that having thus given the Soul one " Attribute of the Divinity, another Egyptian " Doctrine foon taught them to make a perfect " God Almighty of it." And how is this made out? Why thus. "We have observed, favs " he, that the Mysteries were an Egyptian In-" vention, and that the Secrets of them were " the Unity of the Godhead." - Sure, it should be, the Secret of them was the Unity of the Godhead; and in what follows, it should be expressed; not, " These were the grand anog-" ena," —but, This was the grand anogenfor, " in which we are told the Kings and Magis-" trates, and a felect Number of the best and " wisest were instructed."—It were greatly defirable Mr. Warburton had acquainted us, where this is faid.—But the next Observation is of much greater Importance. He tells us elfewhere *, and with great Pains endeavours to prove, that though indeed the Unity of God was a grand, or the grand Secret of the Mysteries,

vet that there was another Secret, of equal importance to Society, communicated in the MyL teries; and that was, the Immortality of the Soul, and a future State of Rewards and Punishments; nay, and adds, that these were of the Essence of the Mysteries. This cannot be denied. How then now comes the only Secret of the Mysteries to be the Unity of God?—But still it is much worse to observe, that whereas, before, the Mysteries were mentioned only on Account of, and with Respect to, a future State of Rewards and Punishments, and a long Differtation is added on Purpose to prove, that they were a political Contrivance, directly to inculcate in a most forcible Manner, the Doctrine of fuch a State; they are now mentioned bere again, as intended to inculcate another Doctrine; which, in it's Consequences, too easily led every one to a Disbelief of that first Doctrine of a future State. This is the Manner in which the Mysteries are mentioned here.

But let him proceed: "This shews the "Doctrine was delivered in such a Manner as "was most useful to Society."—It should rather have been, This shews the Doctrine was—as was least HURTFUL to Society.—For what is the Antecedent to This? Is it not, The Doctrine's being privately communicated to a select Number? Had the Unity of the Godhead been openly divulged, while Polytheism universally prevailed, it would have met with such inveterate Prejudices, as must have occasioned the most violent Opposition and Civil Disorder.

There-

Therefore it was made an amogenfor, and some proper and well-prepared Minds only were let into it. - But in what follows it is infinuated. as if the Doctrine of the To a was included in the Egyptian Notion of the Unity of the Godhead. For (though it must be owned the Connexion is infinitely obscure) thus he goes on.-" But the Principle of the To es is as destructive " to Society as Atheism can make it."—Allow it; but how is this Principle related to the other? The Egyptian Mysteries said, God was one: Could it possibly from hence follow, or could any Mind from hence collect, That God was every Thing; or that every Thing was God? This Doctrine of the Unity was inculcated in the Mysteries, as he himself had before afferted, in particular and express Opposition to the Polytheism that prevailed, and was the vulgar and established Religion every where: And yet this very Doctrine was the Occasion of the most learned Men's faying and afferting, " that every " Thing was God, and God every Thing:" And so, though Polytheism was indeed an Error; yet Jupiter and Juno, with all the rest of the Gods and Goddesses, whether greater or less, above or below; nay, Crocodiles, Cats, Onions and Garlick; and, in a Word, every individual Thing was God: Notwithstanding that it was expressly and directly in Opposition to the Godthip of these Things, that the Unity of God was afferted and inculcated in the Mysteries.

This is plainly to make the Doctrine of the Mysteries infinitely more absurd than the most vulgar

vulgar Polytheism could possibly be; for which yet it was intended as the most effectual Reme-

dv.

But, notwithstanding this Infinuation, he is forced to acknowledge, that the Egyptians " however had no gross Conceptions of the "Divinity, when they had found him, but " represented him, as we are told by the Anci-" ents, as a Spirit diffusing itself through the " World, and intimately pervading all Things." And is not this a good tolerable Representation of the Immensity and Omnipresence of God? And in calling him a Spirit, there certainly is no Harm .- " And thus, in a figurative, moral " Sense, saying that God was all Things."-And thus? What is the Meaning of this Tranfition? Here, it must be; either, that God's being all Things, is another Manner of expreffing the same Thing; as when it is said, God is a Spirit, pervading all Things (which most certainly is not true): Or, else, that the one is a Consequence of the other; and so evident a one, that he that owns the one, cannot but, must of Necessity, see the other. And is this true? These are the only Ways in which I can account for that Transition; and are both equally false.

But, it seems, there is an Authority for the Egyptians saying, that God was all Things. For thus Mr. Warburton translates the following Words of an Ancient: Δοκεῖ αὐτοῖς δίχα Θεῦ μηθὲν ὅλως συνες ᾶναν; which yet, methinks, any one else would, and Cudworth does, render

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more literally, and with better Sense, " They " think that nothing at all confifts, or fubfifts, " without God." How Mr. Warburton came to give us fuch a Translation of a Passage in itfelf fo plain, and fo full of good Senfe, is not to be accounted for otherwise than by a fond Defire of connecting it, some-how or other, with the Doctrine of the To is; and fo shewing how the one might lead to the other: Which is done thus; " The Egyptians having faid, in " a figurative, moral Sense, God was all Things, athe Greeks drew the Conclusion in a literal " and metaphyfical, that all Things were God; " and so ran headlong into Spinosissm." Had the Egyptians said, in any proper Sense, that God was all Things, it must needs have followed, in the same Sense, that all Things were God. -It does not appear (as was just observed) that the Egyptians ever faid any fuch Thing, as is here faid for them. And I shall now observe, it no more appears, that the Greeks ever faid, All Things were God. The Passage here cited falls as much short of the Purpose, as that other in the Case of the Egyptians. In the Writings, fays he, going under the Name of Orpheus, we find these Words; in ti ta marta *. " All Things are one." This is not, All Things are God. That strange Doctrine of the

^{*} Those who have a Mind to see a great deal more concerning these Manners of speaking concerning God and Nature, may consult the learned Cudworth, Intell. Syst. c. 4. where great Numbers are to be met with (and particularly all those, I think, which Mr. Warburton has here mentioned) and the Doctor's Sentiments concerning them.

To in is not to be always understood, wherever the Word is met with, put absolutely, as it is here. For is there no other Sense in which it is thus used? Yes; several. And bere it may mean this: " That there is an universal Rela-"tion of all Things to one another, as Parts of " an Whole; fo that they all make one System. " one Constitution, one Universe; and, in this " Sense, one Thing." What Objection can be made to fuch a Construction of the Word, a, here, I know not. But certainly this is as different from Spinosism, as black is from white. The fame Construction may be put upon the Latin Phrases, cited here, Omnia unum, Unum omnia.—And upon the whole, I think it no ways appears, that either the Egyptians faid, that God was all Things; or the Greeks, that all Things were God. And, I imagine, Mr. Warburton has, in no Respect, done what he undertook under this Head, viz. " To shew " what were those Egyptian Principles, which " led the Greeks into the monstrous Doctrine " of the το εν."

" But, laftly, fays he, the Books going un-" der the Name of Hermes Trismegistus, having " given the greatest Credit to this Opinion, it " will be proper to explain that Matter." The Sum of his Explication is this: That thefe Books are an arrant Forgery, begun, carried on, and finished at various Times, and by as various People: Begun under the Ptolomies by the Egyptian Priests, to support their own Credit by a false Pretence of retaining still among them

them the old Egyptian Wisdom; but carried on by the Platonists, in Opposition to Christianity; and finished by Christians, in their own Defence, and in Opposition to those very Platonifts .- This is Mr. Warburton's Account of the Matter; and thus, he has made a mere Farrago of these Books of Trismegistus (as others had done before him; and not without Reafon:) Such a one as confifts, not only of various and heterogeneous Parts, but even oppofite and contradictory ones. And therefore upon fuch Books, no Stress ought to be laid any Way. Yet it may not be amis, just to hint one Thing. Since several of these Books do. confessedly, relate to Times long after the Reigns of the Ptolomies, the whole ought to be supposed to have been written after their Times; unless there is plain Evidence to the contrary. But of fuch Evidence Mr. Warburton has produced absolutely nothing: And, consequently, how much Spinofilm soever there may be in these Books (and there is some rank enough) they will do nothing towards determining at all, whether the Doctrine of the to was originally Egyptian or Grecian; which yet was the Point undertaken to be cleared up.

And I think, upon this Review, it must appear, that Mr. Warburton has, after all that has been said, lest the Point just as he found it, viz: uncertain what was the Original of that absurd Doctrine of the ro ev; and not only so, but likewise whether the ancient Egyptians or

Greeks knew any thing at all of it.

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Q 2 PART

PART III.

Mr. WARBURTON'S Notion of moral Obligation considered.

THE Notion which Mr. Warburton has advanced concerning moral Obligation *, being liable, as I apprehend, to much Abuse, and to some very absurd Consequences (none of them, I dare say, intended, or seen by him) he will allow me to consider it with the same Coolness and Impartiality, as he himself has offered it to the Publick +.

Proposing to trace up moral Duty (Obligation) to it's first Principles, he in the first Place observes, that as every Animal has it's Instinct

· See Div. Legat. p. 35.

+ It will not be amiss to observe, here at first, upon what Occasion Mr. Warburton introduces this Notion into the present Work. It is in an incidental Dispute with Mr. Bayle; who, for Reasons better known to himself, than any one else, thought fit, in his Various Thoughts occasioned by Comets, to step so very far out of his Way, as to endeavour to shew, that neither the Doctrine of Epicurus, nor that of Strato, was necessarily destructive of Society: And for this Reason particularly, " Bese cause an Atheist, whether Epicurean or Stratonicean, might " have an Idea of the moral Difference between Good and " Ill." It is here Mr. Warburton enters the Lifts with Bayle, and, in Opposition to him, (and not only to him, but, what is infinitely more confiderable, in Opposition likewise to all those who found Morality in the Nature and Reason of Things) advances that Notion of moral Obligation, which is here confidered. And the present Consideration of it is so intirely confined to the Notion itself, that neither Bayle nor his Fatalists are ever mentioned, but purely when and as it may be necessary or requifite to fet Mr. Warburton's Sentiments and Reasonings in the easiest and truest Light. implantimplanted by Nature to direct him to his greatest Good, so Man has his; to which-*. By Good here must be meant Happiness, and by an Animal's greatest Good, his greatest Happiness. Put this Word then instead of the other. Man then, as well as other Animals, has an Instinct implanted by Nature, by which he is directed to -bis greatest Happiness .- To which Instinct, modern Philosophers have, he fays, given the Name of the Moral Sense: And this he immediately calls, an instinctive Approbation of Right, and Abborrence of Wrong, prior to all Reflexion on their Nature, or their Consequences. Where, in two Sentences, we feem to have two different Accounts of this moral Sense. First, it is an Instinct whereby we are directed to our greatest Happiness; and, Secondly, it is an instinctive Approbation of Right, and Abborrence of Wrong, prior to all Reflexion on their Nature, or their Consequences. The Meaning of these two Words, Right and Wrong, is in this Place very obscure. If he means, as one would think he must mean, in the Sense of Morals, one would be willing to know, how a Man's greatest Happiness is concerned in approving Right, and abhorring Wrong. Every one fees this must depend upon Mr. Warburton's Notion of Morality.

As to the *moral Sense*, a Thing so much talked of, I shall neither affirm nor deny it: But if it were granted, it must yet be hard to conceive how there can be any *Virtue* merely

* P. 36.

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lrin following such an instinctive Impulse. There must be a Reason for following it, and this Reason must be seen and attended to, before any Action in Compliance with it can be truly called Virtuous: Otherwise Men are liable, without Remedy, to all the Reveries of a disturbed

or crazy Imagination.

Concerning this moral Sense he observes, that it is the first Inlet to the adequate Idea of Morality; which is a Manner of Speaking not very intelligible: But when he adds, and plainly the most extensive of all, the Atheist as well as Theist having it; this is furely wrong. Fill up the Sentence,—the most extensive INLET of all.— The Meaning is, that more Men have this Inlet than any other. The very next Inlet he mentions, is the Reasoning Faculty. Now there are not, fure, more Men that have the moral Sense, than the reasoning Faculty. Or, should it be otherwise, and it were possible for a Man to have that Instinct, called moral Sense, without the rational Faculty, would he be a Subject capable of Virtue? And whereas he thinks it a Reason for the superior Extensiveness of this Inlet, that an Atheist has it as well as a Theist; does he not know, that an Atheist has the rational Faculty as well as a Theift? And, on the other hand, whereas neither Atheist nor Theist will deny his having such a Faculty, he cannot furely but know, that Atheists to a Man, and Theifts in great Numbers, will deny or question this moral Sense; in any other Meaning of the Phrase than only "an Instinct where-

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" by Men as well as other Animals are led to

" their greatest Good."

But he proceeds from the moral Sense to,

Secondly, The reasoning Faculty; which improves upon the Dictates of the moral Sense. For this finds a Difference in the Qualities of buman Actions—and consequently, that the Love and Hatred excited by the moral Sense were not capricious in their Operations. —— I think it should be, and consequently, that the Love and Hatred excited by the moral Sense were not capricious either in themselves or in their Operations: And then the Reason that follows is good; for that the effential Properties of their Objects had a specific Difference. This specific Difference being what determined, and being steadily observed by, these Affections of Love and Hatred, is the Evidence that these Affections themselves are not capricious.

But Reason, says he, having gone thus far it slopped—stopped? Why? Was it because it could go no farther? Reason plainly found out and saw a Difference in the Qualities of human Actions: And was this all that Reason did or could do? Saw only that there was a Difference; but neither attended to nor saw the Nature of that Difference? Why so? Surely, it might (and indeed could not avoid it) as well see what this Difference in itself was, as see, in the general, that there was a Difference. Now, if this Difference was a different Tendency, of one Action to produce Good, Happiness; of another, to produce Evil, Misery; is not here an adequate

adequate Object to determine the Will to Choice and Action?

This is what Mr. Warburton has too much overlooked; (how he came to do it is hard to fay) and it has occasioned great Obscurity and Inconclusiveness in all that he has said in An-

fwer even to Bayle's Argument.

He proceeds; Reason having gone thus far—
it stopped; and saw, that to establish the Morality, properly so called, of Actions, that is, an
Obligation or Injunction, on Men, to perform
some and to avoid others, there was need of calling
in other Principles to it's Assistance. Here is a
new Sense of the Word, Morality; very much
peculiar, as I take it, to Mr. Warburton. The
Morality, properly so called, of Actions is an Obligation or Injunction on Men, to perform some
and to avoid others. And by Obligation or Injunction, is meant the positive Will or Command of a Superior. For so he explains himself under the

Third Head: Nothing can thus oblige but a fuperior Will. Suffer me to ask: Is there nothing in the Actions themselves to determine the Will of this Superior, to command one and to forbid another? If so, it will follow that it was, antecedently, indifferent which was commanded, and which forbidden: And that, whereas one Sort of Actions have been commanded, and another forbidden; the latter might have been commanded and the other forbidden. And then it will follow too, that it must be absolutely impossible for any Man by

any mere Light of Nature to know what are the Commands and Prohibitions of this Superior Will. For in investigating Morals by the Light of Nature, there is no other Way of coming at the Will of the superior Being, but by first finding out the Reasonableness or Unreasonableness of fuch and fuch Actions; and from thence concluding the divine Pleasure with Relation to them. Let Mr. Warburton likewise farther confider, whether God is not a morally good Being; whether he has not morally good Dispositions, or moral Attributes; and, lastly, whether he does not act morally well. Nothing of this can be denied. Let it then be farther confidered; whether the divine Morality, the Morality of God's Attributes and Actions, can be founded in Will. Not the Will of a Superior; for he has none: Not his own Will; for this, in Mr. Warburton's own Opinion, cannot conftitute an Obligation upon bimself. And others will fay, not bis own Will; because this Will must be determined by some Reason or no Reafon: If by fome Reason, then it is that Reason! that constitutes the Morality: If by no Reafon, then the Determination is precarious; and whereas God is faid to be just and good, he might have been, and may at any Time be, quite the Reverse. But if the Morality of the supreme Being is not founded in Will, but in fomething very different, viz. the Reason of Things; why may not the Morality of inferior Beings be fo too? It must be fo, unless mere Finiteness makes a Difference: Which how

how it should do here, no one will be able to

fay.

And Mr. Warburton is furely mistaken, when he fays, that from Will, and from this only arose a moral Difference; as also in what follows; from this Time, viz. from the Time of discovering the Will of God, human Actions became the Subject of Obligation, and not till now. For though Instinct discovered a Difference in Actions; and Reason proved that Difference to be founded. in the Nature of Things: Yet it was Will only that could make a Compliance with that Difference a DUTY. I am forry the Sentence ends with this Word; which, in it's conftant Use, implies Submission to the Will of a Superior. For which Reason we never speak of the Duty of God; who has and can have no Superior. But we speak freely of the moral Goodness of God; of the Morality of his Attributes and Actions. It had therefore been better, and the Language had been more uniform too, if, instead of the Word Duty, the Word Obligation, had been used. This is the real Meaning, and the necessary Meaning, agreeably with the Tenor of Mr. Warburton's Discourse here; though by fuch a Change of the Word what is faid here has fomewhat more the Appearance of Reason than otherwise it would have.

It will be right however to restore the proper Word; It is Will only that can make a Compliance with the Difference of Things an Obligation. And I suppose,

pose, he will say, that it is not mere Will, but the Will of a Superior; and by a Superior he must mean a Being who has it in his Power to do us Good or Hurt, as we regard or flight his Will. The Will of fuch a Being constitutes an Obligation upon us to obey it, i.e. in acting according to the Differences in the Nature of Things. And who will question it? But then it may be faid on the other Hand, that as it is not a mere Difference of Actions, or Difference at large, that is pretended to be the Ground of Morality, but a particular Difference; viz. (as the Generality will fay) the Tendency of some to Good, Happiness; of others to Evil, Misery; this is as real a Ground of Obligation, as any fuperior Will can be: and indeed, exactly in the same Manner. Happiness and Misery are what they are, and the same to those that have them, whether they are the natural or the positive and artificial Consequences of Action: And if, or when, fo, will equally oblige.

In what immediately follows he appears to

run into a double Inconfistency.

On these three Principles then, namely, the moral Sense—the essential Difference in human Actions—and the Will of God, is built the whole Edifice of practical Morality: Each of which Principles hath it's distinct Motive to inforce it.

When he had said before, that the moral Difference or the Morality of Actions is an Obligation or Injunction to perform some and to avoid others, it cannot be very consistent to say, that Morality is built upon these three Principles, moral

moral Sense—the essential Difference—and the Will of God: Since, according to him, there is no Morality in acting according to either moral Sense or Reason: It consists wholly and only in acting according to the Will of a Superior. This alone can constitute a moral Difference; this

alone can make an Obligation.

Neither is it more confistent to say of each of these Principles, that it hath it's distinct Motive to inforce it. Obligation appears to be nothing else but a Motive to inforce Compliance. If each of these Principles has a distinct Motive to inforce Compliance, do they not each of them oblige? That is, according to the Strength of their respective Motives, whatever that is? But the Dispute here is about Obligation itself, and not about the different Force of Obligations. Compliance with the moral Sense is attended with a grateful Sensation: Will not that oblige?-With the effential Difference, which is promoting the Order and Harmony (add, Happiness; for so he might and should have done) of the Universe: Surely, this will oblige too. And Compliance with the Will of God obliges no otherwife, than as we obtain thereby Reward and avoid Punishment. For separate these intirely, fuppose them quite away, and there is no Strength in the Will of any Superior to inforce Obedience to it.

Nor, lastly, can I see the Consistency, with what went before, of his Answer to an Objection, which follows here, viz. That the true Principle of Morality should have the worthiest Motive

Motive to inforce it : Whereas the Will of God, which he makes that Principle, is inforced by the View of Rewards and Punishments: On which Motive Virtue bath the smallest Merit. There feems to be fomething not a little furprifing in the Answer given to this Objection. He, first of all, allows it to be right, that the genuine Principle of Morality must have the worthiest Motive to inforce it: But then, in the next Place, afferts, that this is true of his Principle; and gives this Reason for it: For the legitimate Motive to Virtue on that Principle is Compliance with the Will of God: Which, fays he, has the bighest Degree of Merit. His Principle of Virtue is the Will of God: What inforces this Will, or Obedience to this Will? The Objection fays, Rewards and Punishments. He himself had immediately before given this Account of this third Principle: The third which resolves itself into the Will of God AND TAKES IN all the Consequences of Obedience and Disobedience is principally adapted to the common Run of Men. And the Objection immediately follows, grounded directly upon this Description of his own Principle. Nothing can be plainer, than that even according to himself, Rewards and Punishments are what inforce this third Principle of Virtue, the Will of God. Yet, what inforces it now? Why, Compliance with the Will of God. What is this but to fay, that Compliance with the Will of God inforces, or is a Motive to, Compliance with the Will of God? If he would have a peculiar Emphasis laid upon the Word, God:

God: He should at least have expressed himself in fuch a Manner, as might have led us to it: Which might eafily have been done. Had he faid, Compliance with the Will of fuch a Being as God, -he had been eafily understood; and had in some Measure avoided the Charge of Inconfiftency: Yet, I am afraid, not altogether. For if the Word, God, be explained, he must mean, either a perfectly moral Being, or an infinitely powerful one. If the latter only; then the Reason of, or Motive to Compliance with such a one's Will, can be only the Object of mercenary Hope or fervile Fear. If the former; it is impossible to form any Notion of a morally perfect Being, if what he has faid before be true, that Obedience to the Will of a Superior is the Morality of Actions: That it is fuch a Will, and that only, that makes a moral Difference. And to take in both will only add to the Perplexity and Abfurdity.

He goes on; But this, viz. Compliance with the Will of God, not being found of Force sufficient to take in the Generality, the Consequences of Compliance or Non-compliance to this Will, so far as relates to Rewards and Punishments, were first drawn out to the People's View. Here a great many Doubts offer themselves.—When was the Time that a Trial was made of the Essimate of that Principle of Compliance with the Will of God, merely? If a Trial never was made, then the insufficient Force of it could never be found. And then such Experience could never be the Occasion or Reason, for drawing

out the Consequences of Compliance or Non-compliance to the People's View. Neither have we any Account when this was done, or by whom. On the contrary, it is certain, that in all Ages and Countries, and among all People, when and where and among whom Morality was practised, as being agreeable to the Will of God, it was fo with a View to what he could and would do-for them, if they obeyed him-against them, if they did otherwise. And as for the Similitude, which follows, to illustrate this last Observation, the principal Part of Likeness feems quite to have been mistaken. For the Mathematician's teaching his Pupil the Utility of a Theorem, in order to induce him to ingage in the Demonstration of it, has nothing to anfwer to it in the Case here mentioned. But if it be altered and put thus, that a Paper of Plumbs is the Engagement one Way, and a Ferula the other, it will exactly correspond.

And from what has been faid, I believe, it will appear, that, as to the Complaint which follows here against those, who in their Discourses upon Morality have, as he is pleased to express it, facrilegiously untwisted this threefold Cord, and each run away with the Part he esteemed the strongest, many will think that he himself has given as much Occasion for making it as any Body else. For though he mentions indeed three Principles of Morality, viz. the moral Sense, the Reason of Things, and the Will of God; he plainly gives up the two sirst, and sticks

flicks only to the last: Which he says can alone constitute Obligation and moral Difference.

But, as he endeavours to shew distinctly the Extravagance and Absurdity of each of these Untwifters, it might not be amiss to follow him, and observe in what Manner he represents their Notions. I shall omit however intirely the first Sort, and only just touch upon what is said to the other two.

To them of the fecond Class, who found Morality in the effential Differences of Things and their natural Fitness or Unfitness to certain Ends, he says, p. 39. Then, i. e. according to the Opinion of these Men, Morality is folely founded on these Differences .- Which is, not a Consequence, but their Opinion itself; yet it is here mentioned as a Consequence, and no very good one neither. In what follows, there is a Consequence; and, though he has expressed it not very handsomly, let it but be clothed in fomewhat decenter Language, and no Body will need to be startled at it .- And God and his Will have nothing to do in the Matter. This is but a vulgar, rude Manner of Expression, and fomewhat shocking as here applied. Therefore change the Language, and fay, " Since Morals " are founded in the Nature of Things, just as " Metaphyfics and Mathematics are, the mere " Will of any Being whatever has no more " any Concern with them, than with metaphy-" fical or mathematical Truth;" and few People will reckon this any hard Consequence.

And the next Consequence may be admitted, both in itself and in the Language in which it is represented: viz. Then the Will of God cannot make any Thing morally Good and Evil, Just and Unjust (only it should have been expressed disjunctively, good or Evil, just or unjust).—
This, it must be owned, is a necessary Consequence; and it must be as hard to find the Absurdity of it; any more or any otherwise, than if it should be said, that the Will of God cannot make a true or a salse Proposition in speculative Truth, Metaphysics or Mathematics.

But then the next Confequence is none at all -nor consequently can the Will of God be the Cause of any Obligation on moral Agents. - This does not follow from their Opinion, who think Morality is founded in the Nature of Things: And I think, he cannot but know that they diftinguish between a natural, or moral, Obligation, and a positive one; and they say, that though the Will of no Being whatever can make or cause the former, the Will of such a Being as God may make the latter, and is indeed the only Cause of it, where no other Reason (as may happen in many Cases) can be discerned and affigned by Men, or other reasonable finite Beings. Not that there is not a Reason in the Nature of Things for whatever God wills; but this Reason may be absolutely in the Dark to every finite Being whatever. Yet, though it be in the Dark, the Command of fuch a Being as God will oblige to Obedience; if revealed in a fatisfactory Manner.

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As for Mr. Warburton's Reason with which he makes his Adversaries support this Consequence, which they do not hold, it is a very infufficient one, and the latter Part of it is expressed invidiously. Because the Essences and Natures of Things, which constitute Actions Good and Evil (furely, not fimply Good and Evil, but naturally or morally Good and Evil) are independent of the Will of God; which is FORCED to submit to their Relations, like weak Man's. This Reason does not prove the Consequence, viz. That the Will of God cannot be the Cause of ANY Obligation what sever (though a positive one) on moral Agents; it only proves that the Will of God cannot be the Cause of a moral Obligation: But there are positive Obligations, as well as moral or natural ones: The Confequence takes in both; but the Reason reaches only to one: Therefore is plainly infufficient. And what an Expression is that? - Which is FORCED to Submit to the Relations of Things, like weak Man's. To submit to these Relations is no Sign of Weakness. On the contrary, it is owing to the absolute Perfection of the moral or intellectual Nature of God, that he always and perfectly wills and acts according to these Relations. And just so far as Men and other finite intelligent Beings discern, and in their Wills and Actions conform to the same Relations, in the very same Degree they are sound, healthful and ftrong; and in what Degree foever they deviate from them, distempered, weak, imperfect. wad Holdw) it blat bad your But to go on with his Confequences.

The next is so darkly and ambiguously expressed, that one knows not easily what it is: But so far as it is intelligible, it seems to be little different from what has been faid before. And therefore if there was no natural Justice, that is, if the rational and intellectual Nature was of itself undetermined and unobliged to any Thing, and fo destitute of Morality, it was not possible, that any Thing should be made morally Good or Evil, obligatory or unlawful, or that any moral Obligation should be begotten by any Will or positive Command what soever. First of all; this Explication of natural Justice is very dark: It is the rational and intellectual Nature's being, of itself, determined and obliged to something .--What is this rational and intellectual Nature? Is it the Nature of God, or intellectual Nature at large? And, what is meant by being determined and obliged of itself? Can intelligent Nature be determined and obliged by itself? Or, is it determined and obliged only by the Truth and Reality of Things? And, if intelligent Nature does not determine and oblige itself, must it therefore be destitute of Merality? Why, do not the Moralists, whom he is here pressing with his Confequences, constantly fay, that the Morality of all intelligent Beings, confifts in their being determined by, and acting agreeably to, the Nature and Truth of Things? Not in their being determined and obliged by, or of, themselves to any Thing. Well; but supposing they had faid it (which they do not) what fol-R2 lows?

lows? Why then, it is not possible that any Thing should be made morally Good or Evil, obligatory or unlawful (morally so), or that any moral Obligation should be begotten by any Will or positive Command whatsoever. Nor any Harm do I see in such a Consequence as this. It is no more than what was before mentioned, and it has been already considered: Only let me just add farther, that it is in itself an immediate plain Absurdity, to say that positive Will or Command can be the Cause of any more than a positive Obligation. But a positive Obligation is essentially different from a natural or moral one. And it is a natural or moral Obligation only that is now considered.

The last Consequence is; and then our Knowledge of moral Good and Exil is folely acquired by abstract Reasoning; and to talk of their coming any other Way into the Mind is weak and Superstitious, as making God act unnecessarily and superfluoufly. Some foolish Freethinkers may have expressed themselves to this Purpose. However he cannot but know, it is no genuine Confequence from the Notion, that Morality is founded in the Nature of Things, just as Metaphyfics and Mathematics are. Yet as to thefe, it is generally known and allowed, that positive Information, Instruction, is necessary enough to lead Men into the Knowledge of them. And may not positive Instruction then, whether ordinary or extraordinary, be as ferviceable in the other Case? And more necessary, as the Matter is of greater Importance.

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But it must be owned, that, however severe Mr. Warburton is in loading the Rationalists with bad Consequences, he is to the full as severe upon his own Party: I mean, those who found Morality in the Will of a Superior; yet, as it should seem, without any the least Suspicion, that he is condemning himself at the same Time.

A third, says he, p. 40. who proposes to place Morality on it's TRUE Bottom, the Will of a Superior, acts yet on the same exterminating Model. He takes the other two Principles to be merely vifionary .- If the TRUE Bottom of Morality be; as he himself thinks it is, the Will of a Superior; the other two Principles may not feem to have any Relation to it; and every one that is really of that Sentiment must act upon (as he phrases it) the exterminating Model: i. e. he must reject the other two; at least the latter of them, and absolutely so. As for the moral Sense indeed, it is not necessary, that either he or the Rationalist should be quite against it: Because there is no Inconfistency in allowing such a Sense, and yet founding Morality either in Will, or the Nature of Things. Therefore if any Religionist goes so far, as, in order to support his own Scheme of Morals, to deny and explode the moral Sense, he plainly runs too far, and takes Pains to no Purpose. Because Morality may be founded in the Will of God, and yet the moral Senfe may be, (over and above the Faculty of Reason,) a particular and special Means both of Discernment of, and Compliance with it. Therefore, paffing

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He not only denies, fays Mr. Warburton, all moral Difference in Actions, antecedent to the Will of God, which (as we shall shew anon) he might very well do; but likewise all specific Difference. As for the moral Difference of Actions, in themselves considered, the Religionist must needs deny it, confiftently with his own Principle. But as for a specific Difference, or a Difference in any other Respect, furely no Man in his Wits can possibly question it. For what would this be but to fay, that Love and Hatred are the fame Temper; a kind and a malicious Action, the very same Action; and that it is a foreign Will only that can make any Difference between them, or make them not to be the same? Most certainly, a Man that has wrought up himself to affert and believe fuch an Abfurdity as this, is not to be argued with, or indeed treated any otherwise than as a Lunatick. And nothing that fuch a one can fay after this, needs to be at all the Subject of Wonder: Therefore it cannot be in the least furprifing, that he should affirm, that

that the Notions of fit and unfit proceed, not from this Difference, but from the arbitrary Impositions of Will only .- For this is no more than faying the same Thing in other Words that had been faid before; viz. that there is no Difference at all between relieving a poor Man and oppreffing him. But in what follows, the Affertion is extended to other Sorts of Truth: And indeed, it is no more than a just Consequence, if it be extended so as to take in even all Sorts of Truth. And so it will follow, that the Truth of the divine Existence itself depends upon Will, in the very same Manner as the Truth of the Equality of 2 and 2 to 4 does.—But this is all pure Exaggeration; and, whatever some crazy People have done (and there are Madmen of all Parties) the Religionist fure is not under a Neceffity of denying a specific Difference of Actions, merely because he denies the moral Difference, separate from Will: As is evident from even Mr. Warburton's own Example; who, though a true Religionist, denying all moral Difference of Actions separate from Will, yet cannot deny a specific Difference, or that 2 and 2 are equal to 4. Possibly indeed, this may, in the long run, be a necessary Consequence of his Notion concerning Morality; but he does not however at present see it; nay, he denies it. And yet, fuch is the plain direct Tendency of his own Notion, that he is often betrayed, unawares, into fuch a Manner of expressing himfelf as would equally hint, that Will is as much et in the lead intent A that he should s

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the Principle of Truth as of Morality This he does in the very next Sentence out inspinage

Thus have Men, fays he, born away by a Fondness to their own fanciful Systems, presumptuously broken in upon that triple Barrier with which God has been GRACIOUSLY PLEASED to cover and fecure Virtue. - Is not this, plainly, to subject the specific as well as the moral Difference of Actions to the Pleasure, i.e. to the Will of God; and fo to run into that very Extreme, which he had just before been reproving some Religionists for? If it be GRACIOUS PLEASURE that has formed this triple Barrier, the whole is depending upon Pleasure: Consequently the specific Difference of Actions, which is one Barrier, is dependent upon Pleasure: And if this, why

not all Truth whatfoever/?

At the End of the same Paragraph we have another Instance to the same Purpose. Taking Notice that of late Years a Deluge of moral Syftems, in which either the moral Sonse or the ef-Sential Difference makes the Sole Poundation, bave overrun the learned World, he resembles this Deluge of moral Systems, to Aristophanes's Chorus of Clouds, and adds, that the AEVaos NEOENas, the ETERNAL RELATIONS, are introduced into the Scene, with a gaudy Outside, to supplant Jupiter; and to teach the Arts of Fraud and Sophiftry; but foon betray themselves to be empty, obfoure, noisy, impious Nothings. Here is certainly a great deal of false Imagery, and wrong Infinuation, If the eternal Relations and effential Differences of Things are nothing, indepennonly dent

dent of Will and Pleasure, then Truth itself is dependent upon Pleasure; and the Author himself as really denies the specific Difference of Actions, as any of those Zealots of his own Party can do, whom he had just before found Fault with.

Hence he proceeds to a direct Answer to Bayle's Argument; which he reckons, after this Preparation, will be easily and clearly refuted.

And he afferts *, 1st, That an Atheist cannot know the Morality of Actions, properly so called. And, 2dly, That though he may have the moral Sense, and know the effential Differences of Actions, yet that these in Conjunction are quite insufficient to influence Society to the Practice of Virtue.

Upon which Pofitions I would briefly remark, before I come to his Enlargement upon the first of them, (which is the only one I have properly to do with in these Resections;) that the first is certainly true upon his Notion of Morality. For if the Morality of Actions be their Conformity to the Will of God, those who do not acknowledge a God, can know nothing of his Will; and, consequently, can know nothing of Morality, in this Sense of the Word. As to the Second, it may be either true or false, (partially fo) according as the Differences of human Actions are understood. If these essential Differences of Actions be their Tendencies to promote the Order, Harmony and Happiness of the World, on one hand; and on the other, Con-

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fusion, Discord and Misery; if the Atheist can have any Knowledge, any proper Apprehension of these Tendencies, why may not such Knowledge influence to the Practice of Virtue, and Detestation of Vice? And here it may be obferved too farther; that though Mr. Warburton often speaks of the specific Differences of Actions, their effential Difference, and the like; he never, or hardly ever mentions the particular Difference, upon which those who are for founding Morality in the Differences of Actions or Things, ground the Distinction of Virtue and Vice; but fatisfies himself too much with talking in the general, of effential and specific Differences. Whereas he may, and, I think, cannot but, know, that many of these Moralists (all, I reckon, in Reality) do make this Difference to be the different Tendencies of different Actions to create and promote Happiness or Misery.

Now, whoever can have a Notion of Happiness and Misery, and of human Action, and of the different Tendencies of two opposite Actions to produce Happiness or Misery; every such Man may, according to the Sentiments of these Moralists, have a Notion of Morality; and such a one too as may, and will ordinarily, have

fome Influence upon Practice.

But the great Difficulty here is, to conceive how any Man, that is really an Atheist, can have any proper Notion of Action; which, in it's own Nature, supposes and implies Freedom. But how an Atheist can conceive Freedom to be any where; indeed, how he can come by the Idea

Idea of it, I do not know. If he cannot, what Notion can he have of Actions, or the Differences of Actions? Surely, to a real Atheift, all Things univerfally must appear only under the dismal unvaried Gloom of rigid Fate and Necessity. And this, again, must be sufficiently inconsistent both with the Welfare of Society, and with every Notion of Morality whatsoever.

But to return to the first Position.

Mr. Warburton says, he will make it good against Bayle's Arguments to prove that the Morality of human Actions may be demonstrated

on the Principles of a Stratonicean.

Bayle fays, a Stratonicean may have a Notion of the specific Differences of Things; of the Difference of Truth and Fallbood, Gratitude and Ingratitude; in the same Manner as he knows the Difference between Fire and Water. This Mr. Warburton grants; and he grants too, what Bayle afferts in the next Place, that as there are these specific Differences of Things, which the Stratonicean may have a Notion of as well as other Men, so likewise that there are Rules of Reasoning concerning these specific Differences, which are certain and independent of human Will, and which a Stratonicean may use and be concluded by, in the fame Manner as others are. But then, Bayle advances farther, and fays, that if there are certain and immutable Rules for the Operation of the Understanding, there are also such for the Determinations of the Will. This Mr. Warburton denies abfolutely; without appearing to have any Apprehenfion of

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of the Obscurity of the Expression, or attempting at all to fix the Meaning of it. But the Meaning feems to be this; " that as there are certain Rules in Nature for the Direction of the Understanding with Respect to Truth; fo " there are certain Rules according to which the Will may be influenced with Respect to " Action; and that, as the former may direct the Understanding of a Stratonicean, the other " may influence his Will; in the same Manner " as the Understanding and Will of any other " Man may be directed and influenced." Then Bayle instances the most general of these Rules, respecting Action; viz. " That Men ought to " will what is most agreeable to right Reason:" And supports it in this Manner. " For there " is no Truth, fays he, more evident than this, "that it is fit a reasonable Creature (Being) " fhould conform to right Reason, and unfit " that fuch a Creature (Being) should recede " from it." The Sense of which I take to be this; that there is as real a Congruity or Agreement between a reasonable Being's willing and acting according to right Reason, as there is between the Subject and Predicate of any speculative true Proposition whatsoever; and that as a Stratonicean may, confessedly, see the latter Agreement, it must be owned he is equally capable of feeing the former, Consequently, here is a general Rule for the Determination of a Stratonicean's Will.

To this it is replied, 1st, That the Rule is quite obscure with Regard to a Stratonicean.—And, 2dly,

adly, (which is indeed to the Purpose, and beyond it) That was it as clear to him as to the Theift, it could neither serve him, nor ANY ONE else, in the Discovery of Morality. As to the first, it may be owned, the Rule is obscure enough; whether to a Stratonicean, or any one else; merely because it is too indeterminate, and does not fay, what is the moral Reason of Action. With Respect to this, Men are divided in their Sentiments; at least in their Manner of expressing themselves. Some say, it is the Agreeableness of an Action to moral Sense; some, to the Fitness of Things; others, to the Will of God: Yet all will unite in this Sentiment, that, in general, it is acting agreeably to right Reason; i.e. it is acting when there is a good Reafon for Action: But when they proceed to give this Reason, then they talk differently; one asfigns one Thing; another another.-Now the great Question, or the only Question here is; whether in looking into, and examining all the Properties of what are called moral Actions, fome general one, in which they all agree, may not be affigned, which a Stratonic Fatalift, or any Fatalist at all, may see, acknowledge, and (if it be not a Contradiction; as it furely is) be influenced to Action by.

Mr. Warburton, to be fure, cannot, upon his Principles, allow of any fuch Thing; no, nor so much as that there is a moral Property inherent in any Actions at all. He must say, that there is no such Thing as a naturally moral or immoral Action; that with Regard to this



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fame Quality, called Morality, they are all naturally destitute of it: Since it is an extrinsic Quality, superinduced by the Will of God.

Bayle therefore, was he living, could poffibly have no Dispute with our Author about his Fataliff, nor in the least endeavour to convince him, that fuch a one might know the Morality of Actions, and in such a Manner as to be influenced in Practice. They must be other Sort of People he had in his Eye; and, particularly, those who say, that the Morality of Actions is a real inherent Quality of them.

But let us return, and attend to what Mr. Warburton fays, to support his first Assertion.

He fays, The Rule is obscure: But must not every one be fenfible of a much greater Obscurity in what he fays upon this Head, than in the Rule, the Obscurity of which he complains of?

In Support of his Affertion, that a Stratonicean cannot know what is agreeable or disagreeable to right Reason in the Determinations of the Will, though he may in the Operations of the Understanding, he fays;

"That in the Determinations of the Will, " the specific Differences of Things, and their

" Relations, not only as they are in themselves,

" but as they refer to the Determiner, are to " be taken in and confidered. And this latter

" Set of Relations are in common Life fo op-

" posite generally, and contradictory to the for-" mer, that this Rule of acting conformably to

" right Reason, would be a very uncertain, if

" not an useless Direction to him. For what " would be according to right Reason in any " Action, were there only the effential Diffe-" rence of Things themselves, and their Rela-" tions amongst one another, to be considered, " may not be according to right Reason, on " the Principles of a Stratonicean, when their " Relations to the Confiderer are taken in: " And to reconcile these Contrarieties, there is " need of another Principle, from whence may " be deduced a Coincidence and Concomitan-" cy, intentionally produced, between these " jarring Relations; in order to determine " fleadily the Acts of the Will: Which Co-" incidence (why not Concomitancy too?) he " who regards himself as the Effect of a fatal " unintelligent Nature, is forced to deny *."

Here is the Argument at full Length. I was unwilling to abridge it, for fear of being thought to contribute any Thing to it's Obscurity. What others may think of it, I cannot say; but, for my own Part, I must needs own, I have seldom met with any Thing darker and more enigmatical. I shall do what I can to open the Sense of it; and if I fall short, I may hope for an Excuse.

Mr. Warburton distinguishes between the Relations of Things; viz. between those to and among one another, and those which respect the Determiner; and says, that in the Operations of the Understanding, the former only are considered; but in the Determinations of the Will, the

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latter are to be taken in, and confidered. Taking in, and confidering, are Operations of the Understanding; and if these latter Relations are to be taken in, and confidered, it must be done by the Understanding: And I add, that (if I guess what is meant by them) they are as really and as much to be confidered by one that will know the Nature and Reason of Things, as any other; fince these Relations are as real as the other; nay, of the very same Nature with the other. For furely, the Determiner here is as real a Thing or Being as any other; and, in confidering the Relations of Beings and Things to one another, the Relations of them to the Determiner (where there are any) are as much the Objects of the Understanding, and as much to be confidered, in order to form a right Notion of them, as any other.

But, indeed, it is not uncommon to diffinguish in some such Manner, as is here done; because we often consider Things, their Natures, Properties, Relations, without any Respect to ourselves. Thus it is in investigating speculative, metaphyfical, or mathematical Truth. But then, there is other Truth; which cannot be confidered, without a Respect to ourselves: Such is moral Truth. In investigating this Sort of Truth, the Relations of Things to ourselves and Fellow-Creatures are necessarily to be considered. These Relations are as much the Objects of the Intellect, as any others. And fince a Fatalist is allowed to have the same Understanding as other Men; if it be but allowed he has a Will

Will too, capable of being wrought upon, influenced and determined, as the Wills of other Men, (which ought not to be allowed;) why, then if these Relations are of such a Kind, as to reach and affect the Wills of other Men, they may do the same in the Instance of the Fatalist.

Mr. Warburton appears to be greatly mistaken, when he supposes an Action may be according to right Reason, though the Essential Difference of Things, and their Relations to one another only are confidered; i. e. exclusive of their Relations to the Agent. Right Reason, in Ethics, takes in the whole, and the latter Relations particularly; and an Action agreeable to Right Reason, is an Action proceeding from the Confideration of the latter Relations principally. Of these latter Relations, he says, they are in common Life so opposite generally and contradictory to the former (to the Relations of Things as they are in themselves, rather as they are to one another) that the Rule of acting conformably to right Reason, would be a very uncertain, if not an useles Direction to him—the Stratonicean.

Though the whole of what he fays concerning these Relations be exceeding obscure (as every one will be sensible that reads him with Attention;) yet, upon farther Consideration, and particularly attending to the last cited passage, and the Reason which he gives immediately to support his Afsertion in it, I suspect some Mistake of his Sense in what I have said above; and that his Meaning, after all, and in plain Words, is this; (if it be not this, I must

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own myself utterly incapable of faying what it is;) " That though Virtue, or acting agreeably " to right Reason, be in the general good and " beneficial to Mankind, yet that the Practice " of it may be, in many Cases, not for the In-" terest of, on the contrary, that it may be " prejudicial to, Particulars." This is what I fuspect, after all, he means in faying, the latter Relations are opposite and contradictory to the former: (Though, by the Way, he expresses himself, fure, much too violently, when he fays, that this Opposition and Contrariety is general, i. e. takes in the greatest Number of particular Cafes, and reaches even to common Life; of which more afterwards.) The Reason given to support this Affertion is as follows. For what would be according to right Reason in any Action were there only the effential Difference of Things-and their Relations among one another to be confidered, may not be according to right R'ason, on the Principles of a Stratonicean, when their Relations to the Considerer are taken in .-That is; " Allowing the Rule of acting accord-" ing to right Reason to be in itself and in the " general a good Rule, yet in a thousand Cases " fuch Action may be wrong for Individuals; and, in fuch Cases, acting according to the " general Rule, must appear to the Agents con-" trary to right Reason." Then he adds; And to reconcile these Contrarieties, there is need of another Principle, from whence may be deduced a Coincidence and Concomitancy, intentionally produced, between these jarring Relations, in order to deter-

determine steadily the Acts of the Will .- What those Words, Coincidence and Concomitancy here fignify, I suspect, no Body knows; or how there can be a Concomitancy BETWEEN two Things; and much less will any one be able to conceive, how any Principle can induce a Coincidence and Concomitancy between jarring and contrary Relations .- The Meaning, in gross, feems to be; " That fince Virtue, though in " the general good for Mankind, will very of-" ten be prejudicial to Particulars, fuch Particu-" lars, in order to be determined to, and fup-" ported in, the Practice of Virtue, will want " fome farther Principle, or Confideration, than " what arises from merely attending to the Na-

" ture of Virtue."

But then, on the other hand, it may, and it ought to be observed, that as these Exceptions to the Practice of Virtue are only particular, Mr. Warburton's Reasoning here, by no Means reaches the general Practice of it. And though he expresses himself indeed, as if the Relations of Things to the Considerer were, even in common Life, and generally, opposite and contradictory to the other Relations of Things among themselves; yet, I believe, this will be looked upon as too violenta Manner of Representation; and no Man will allow it, who calmly and justly confiders, that Virtue is undoubtedly the Means of fecuring the Peace of the World, and carrying up the Happiness of Men, and all other reasonable Beings, to what Height it is capable of. Were all Men virtuous, Mankind would then experimentally know their best Estate. Therefore all the possible Discouragements of Virtue must arise from the Neglect of it somewhere or other. And though it is true, in Fact, that such Neglect is become too general, and, in the same Proportion, Dissipulties and Discouragements are thrown in the Way of Virtue; yet there are such and so many Considerations to be taken even from the Nature of Things, as may satisfy any reasonable, thinking Man, that Virtue is still his best Interest, and support him in the Practice of it, notwithstanding those Dis-

ficulties and Discouragements.

It is allowed, that Compliance with the moral Sense is attended with grateful Sensation. This Sensation, it may be allowed, is not less, but rather more grateful, the greater the Discouragements are, with which Virtue is attended in any particular Case.—It is allowed too, that Compliance with the Essential Differences of Things, is promoting the Ofder and Harmony of the Universe. If these are not other Words for Peace and Happiness, yet, certainly, Peace and Happiness must be the Consequence of Order and Harmony. And he that contributes hereto by his own virtuous Temper and Behaviour, must, cannot but, ordinarily, partake of those good Effects; and always, and necessarily, must have a pleasing Consciousness, that he is doing what, univerfally practifed, would most furely make him and every one elfe fecure and happy. -Then farther; any one may know, that as all the chief Miseries of Life arise from Men's foolish

foolish and vicious Behaviour, should all Men be equally foolish and vicious, the Miseries of Life would be raifed in an equal Degree; that is, there would be universal Misery; and the Degree of this Misery would be exactly as the Degree of Men's Wickedness. The plain Consequence of which is, that if no one should make a Stand, and practife Virtue, though under great Discouragements, the Misery of all would be greater than that of a virtuous Man labouring under fuch Discouragements.—And farther: any one may fee, that Happiness is a quite separate Thing from external Acquirements; fuch as Power, Riches, Honours, or even mere fenfible Gratifications: Because these may be supposed in any Measure, confistently with any Degree of Misery, in a vile, turbulent, ill-balanced Mind. But as no Body, in any Case, gets any Thing else by Wickedness, but fuch Externals, these are the only Things that can be lost by the Practice of Virtue in the extremest Cases. Or however; the worst that can be faid is, that Life itself may be fometimes loft in the Pursuit of Virtue. And may it not be truly faid, (as it may be very justly thought) that there are many supposable. Cases, where Life itself is not worth having? And if it is not worth having, e.g. on Condition of being all the while upon the Rack with the Gout or Stone,-what must it be, how much more vile, upon Supposition of an inwardly tormenting, vexatious State of Mind? Such a one particularly as Tiberius * (in Suetonius) describes to be his own.

These and such like Reflections deserve to be attended to more than they commonly are; and may be capable of supporting a Man greatly, even in the most extraordinary Cases, in the Practice of Virtue.

But to return from this feeming Digreffion.

In what follows here under this first Position, there is, I think, no better Reasoning than in what went before; and I have purfued him thus far, merely on Account of his wrong Notion of moral Difference.

But, as under the next Position, we shall have what is more directly in Defence of his own Notion of the moral Difference of Actions,

I shall go directly to it.

2. But, Secondly, fays he, admit the Stratonic Atheist might know what is agreeable to right Reason in the Acts of the Will; we then tell him, that he could not from thence establish the moral Difference. And here again he distinguishes between a natural and a moral Difference of Things; and fays, the former will create a Fitnefs in the Agent to act agreeably thereto; but the latter, the moral Difference, creates, besides this Fitness, an Obligation likewise.

^{*} Quid scribam vobis P. C? aut quomodo scribam? aut quid omnino non scribam hoc tempore ? Dii me, De eque pejus perdant, quam quotidie perire sentio, si scio. Suetonius giving us this Beginning of one of his Letters to the Senate, rightly observes how emphatical a Description it contains of the extreme Wretchedness of his Mind. Postremò semet ipse pertresus, talis epistolæ principio, tantum non summam malorum suorum professus eft. Tib. 11. Caf. c. 67.

adds, when therefore there is an Obligation in the Agent, there is a moral Difference in the Things, and so on the contrary. (Is not that, " when " there is no Obligation, there is no moral Dif-" ference?" But then what will be the Meaning of the Reason that follows? For they are infeparable. Perhaps he meant, and we are to read, vice versa, or, and so the other Way; i. e. where there is a moral Difference, there is an Obligation.) For they are inseparable *. Inseparable indeed! For in his Opinion, and according to his Manner of expressing himself every where, they are the very fame. 'Till the Will of a Superior is discovered, there is no moral Difference in Things; i.e. there is no Obligation to act agreeably to the natural Differences of Things, or to right Reason judging of those Differences. But what can be meant, when it is said, the natural Differences of Things will create a Fitness in the Agent to act agreeably thereto, and yet create no Obligation? And that Obligation can be created only by the moral Difference? This certainly is a furprifing Manner of using Language; and utterly indiffinct and unintelligible.

Well; but he will prove, that right Reason alone cannot properly oblige. And his first Rea-

fon is +;

1. That Obligation in general necessarily implies an Obliger: And the Obliger must be different from, and not one and the same with the Obliged.—Under this Head he speaks of Obli-

* P. 46. + P. 47.

gation in general, or all Sorts of Obligation, and plainly infinuates, there are feveral. And under the next Head he speaks of moral Obligation, i. e. of a free Agent (where, by the Way, we have a new Notion of moral Obligation, different from all that has gone before, and no less inconfistent.) This however appears to be a Distinction without any Difference; and the whole of even his own Enlargement under the first Head shews, that he is speaking of the Obligation of moral Agents only; not one Sentence of it being applicable to any other Sense of the Word: And besides, this is the only Sense of it, when used with any Propriety. For when applied to any other Beings, it merely denotes, Necessity, Force: And the other Obligation is distinguished from this, in the first Instant, by calling it moral. To proceed:

Obligation implies an Obliger, i. e. a Being or Person who obliges. And this Being or Person who obliges, must be different from the Being or Person obliged. If it be said, right Reason will oblige; this is absurd: Because Reason is only an Attribute of the Person obliged; his Assistant to judge of his Obligations, if he have any, to any other Being. But, because Mr. Warburton knew, that this was not the Meaning of the Expression, right Reason, he therefore goes on and says; If by Reason is meant, not every Man's particular Reason, but Reason in general; we reply, that this Reason (Reason in this Sense) is a mere abstract Notion, which hath no real Subsistence; and how that which hath

no real Subfiftence should oblige, is still more incomprehensible. By Subsistence cannot be meant Substance, Being, Person, because then he would oppose only his own Shadow. Those who fay, Reason, or right Reason, will oblige a rational Being, mean by it, that there are in Nature Reasons for or against a Man's acting so or fo: And add, that these Reasons, which are real in the Nature of Things, (though not actually observed and attended to by this or the other intelligent Being) do in the general oblige all intelligent Beings to a particular Method of Conduct. These Reasons are to be sought out and attended to by every fuch Being. And when they are actually feen and acknowledged by any Mind, that Mind is formally, actually and particularly obliged to fuch a Method of Conduct; and is (which is the most immediate and weightiest of all Obligations) self-condemned, if he does not comply with them. Now, is there not a real Meaning in all this? Or, are these Reasons nothing, because they are not Persons? Or, if they are all comprized under one general Term, right Reason, will that reduce them to nothing? Or, lastly; is an abstract Notion nothing? If I fay, Man is an Animal, have I no Meaning? To fay, a Triangle has fuch and fuch general Properties; that the Parts are equal to the whole; or, that it is impossible for a Thing to be and not be at the same Time: Is this to say nothing; because universal Triangles, Wholes, and Things no where fubfift? If then the Phrase, right Reason, has a Meaning, a real one, why may

may not it be good Sense to say, right Reason obliges; or, an intelligent Being is obliged by right Reason? Mr. Warburton must needs say at last (if he will say any Thing) it is because right Reason is no Person, no Being, and no Obliger; but Obligation implies an Obliger; i.e. a Being or Person that obliges.

Let us inquire a little,

Suppose Obligation does imply an Obliger: And an Obliger must be a Being, a Substance, a Person; the Obligation does not arise from the mere Being, Substantiality or Personality of the Obliger: For then all Being, Substantiality, Personality will oblige equally. No; but it is the Being, Substance, Person of a Superior. Then it is not Being, Substance, Person that obliges; but the Superiority of a Being or Perfon. But this Superiority is no Being, Substance or Person, but merely a Quality or Property of the Being, who, by Virtue of it, obliges; and will at any Time lose his Power of obliging, by lofing that Quality. Yet neither is mere Superiority, (which denotes only a physical Power of doing more Good or Hurt than the Being is capable of receiving from the other, to whom he is faid to be *superior*) fufficient to recreate immediately an Obligation: Since a Being may be conceived as having fuch Superiority, i. e. fuch natural Power, without any Inclination either Way: i.e. to do either Good or Hurt. But without fuch Inclination, Superiority in Point of mere Power can have no Effect at all: Therefore cannot oblige. There is confe-

confequently more required in Order to confitute an Obligation: And that is, that this superior Being should, some Way or other, declare his Pleasure with Relation to the Conduct of his Inferior, and withal, his Resolution to exert his Power, according as he is or is not obeyed, to the Good or to the Hurt of fuch Inferior. Thus then we at last come to the Obligation of one Being to another. It is not founded in, nor does it arise from Being, Personality, or Superiority; nor from Will: But from the Prospect of Good or Mischief, as this Will of a superior Being is obeyed or counteracted. What is it then, in a Word, that constitutes and fixes the Obligation? Is it not the Hope of Good and dread of Mischief? For suppose these away, and the Shadow of an Obligation will not arise from all the reft.

Now this coincides exactly with their Notion of moral Obligation, who fay, it is acting agreeably to right Reason. For right Reason will comprehend every Motive for Action; and even positive Rewards and Punishments, when once proposed and known, may and will be included among the rest. But he goes on, and

fays,

2. That moral Obligation—farther implies a Law-but a Law is the Imposition of an intelligent Superior, who bath Power to exact Conformity thereto. p. 48. What has been remarked under the last Head, and elsewhere, already, might be fufficient to obviate what is faid here; yet it may not be amiss to take a cursory View

of what he advances under this fecond Position. Moral Obligation does indeed imply a Law, taking that Word in a large Sense; nor yet larger than it is very often, and therefore properly enough, used in. But then the Word, Law, fignifies much the same as Obligation, and the one is used indifferently for the other: And therefore, properly speaking, Obligation does not imply a Law, in any other Way, or Sense, than as any Thing may be faid to imply itself. Which is really faying nothing .- But Mr. Warburton plainly takes the Word in the narrowest and strictest Sense; viz. for a positive Declaration of a Superior's Pleasure; and if he will say, that nothing can oblige, but fuch a Declaration, he manifestly gives up the Law of Nature, and confines all to Revelation. This, I doubt not, is more than he intends; and yet he too plainly fays it, when he defines a Law to be the IMPO-SITION of an intelligent Superior .- This feems plainly to reduce all Laws to merely positive, express Declarations; and consequently, to set afide the Law of Nature, by taking away all Distinction between natural and positive Laws. Which yet is a Distinction most real and just, and agreeable to the Sentiments and Language of all Writers. He owns, that we fay indeed the Law of Reason, and the Law of Necessity; but adds, that these are merely popular and figurative Expressions. This is a very great Mistake. The Law of Necessity is just such a figurative Expression as the Laws of Motion, or the Law of Gravitation: But the Law of Reason is most exact

exact and proper, and the Word, Law, here expresses the moral Obligatoriness of Reason, or the moral Obligation of an intelligent Being to act according to Reason. And if he will find Fault with this Manner of Expression, he must overturn the whole System of moral Language.

But what is his own Explication of that figurative Expression, the Law of Reason? By this, fays he, we mean the Rule that the Lawgiver LAYS DOWN for judging of his Will. Now this Language is really no more intelligible than, nay it is the very fame as, to fay, that God has made the three Angles of a Triangle equal to two right ones; the Parts equal to the whole: or made it a Contradiction that a Thing should be and not be at the same Time: Whereas these are eternally necessary Truths; not the Object of Power, or subject to Will. Just so it is in the Law of Reason: Which is a Rule for Action no more laid down by any Being than Truth itself is, and is no more the Object of Power, or Subject to Will. It is as original, and as necessarily results from the Nature of Things, as the Equality of the Parts to the Whole. And as no Body fays, the Parts are equal to the Whole, because God has made them fo; fo it is just as improper and unmeaning to fay, that the Law of Reason is a Rule laid down by God. No; but as was just said, this Rule refults immediately and necessarily from the Nature of Things; and, though it can with no Propriety or Meaning be faid to be made or laid down by God, it is the Rule which he invariably

variably conforms his own Actions to from the immutable Rectitude of his Nature; and from the same Rectitude as steadily wills that all his reasonable Creatures should conform theirs. Rule therefore it is, and a Law, antecedently to the Confideration of the Being and Attributes and Relations of God; just in the same Manner and Sense as any other Truth, whether metaphysical or mathematical, is Truth, without taking in the Confideration of the fame Exiftence, Attributes and Relations. And when Mr. Warburton subjoins; But bow any Thing except a Law, in the proper, philosophic Sense (rather in his own Sense of the Word; the Impofition of an intelligent Superior; and this is, not the philosophic, but forensic Sense of it) can oblige-is utterly inconceivable; he seems to betray a Suspicion of the Weakness of his own Argument under this Head: And indeed the whole Amount of what he fays appears to be nothing. As to this Inconceivableness, I think I have shewn the contrary under the last Particular; and believe I shall presently shew it in fuch a Light, as that be bimfelf will fee it.

Here he breaks off the Thread of his Argument, to shew, what has been done already, the Occasion of Bayle's Mistake. But what this can fignify, till it is proved there was really an Error in the Argument, I do not see. And I apprehend he has not done this, nor any Thing like it; and reckon what he says farther upon this Account is as little satisfactory as all the rest:

If it be not quite wrong; which yet it seems to

be. He fays, Bayle too baftily concluded the efsential Differences of Things, as they are the adequate Objects of the Understanding, to be the adequate Objects of the Will likewise. Because, though they are indeed the former, and therefore the Understanding is necessitated in it's Perceptions, and under the fole Direction of thefe necessary Differences, the Will is not necessitated in it's Determinations .- What follows ? Therefore the essential Differences of Things are not an adequate Object of the Will; the Law of a Superior must be taken in .- It is not easy to fix the Meaning here, and every one, I think, must be sensible of an Obscurity in the Language. - He seems to say, that since the Differences of Things do not necessitate the Will, as they do the Understanding; therefore they are not the adequate Objects of the Will; and formething else must be taken in .- For what? To make these Differences adequate to the Will, i. e. to necessitate the Will; as they do, of themfelves, necessitate the Understanding? This must, I think, be the Meaning; if there is any. And is the Will then to be forced? What, in Morals? And, what is yet stranger; can there be no Morality, or no moral Obligation, without this forcing? How eafily may it be replied with Truth; the only Guide of the Will is the Understanding; and that the Will should always be determined by the Judgment which the Understanding makes of the Differences of Things; and, lastly, that this only is the Will of a reafonable Being, rightly guided, directed and determined.

termined. Surely, to talk of forcing or necesfitating the Will is perfectly abfurd; fince it is plainly to take it away: And whenever a rational Being is thus forced or necessitated, he has properly no Will. If this forcing is universal, he has no Will at all: If it is partial, i. e. reaches only to some particular Instances, he is fo far, i. e. in those Instances, without Will.

Well; but fince the Differences of Things are not of themselves the adequate Objects of the Will, and so the Will is not necessitated by them, and fomething farther must needs be taken in, to make them adequate to and necessitating upon the Will; what is it that must be added for this Purpose? Why, the Law of a Superior must be taken in. - And will this do what is contended for? Then, this Law of a Superior, added to the Differences of Things, will-Do what? Make them the adequate, i. e. the necessitating Objects of the Will? This is indeed what he should fay, but does not. Surely, the Conclusion is much too low: The Law of a Superior must be taken in, to constitute Obligation in Choice, or Morality in Actions. If this be all, it will be faid, the effential Differences of Things might and should have done thus much, without including the Law of a Superior at all. And if any intelligent Being, whether finite on infinite, had attended to these Differences of Things, judged of them and been determined by them in Choice and Action, would there have been no Obligation to fuch Choice, no Morality in fuch Action? And must Obligation and Morality

be intirely owing to positive Will? To be sure, the express Law of a Superior added to the Differences of Things will always add great, very great, Weight to them: But this is not the Way so much as to increase, much less to con-

stitute Morality in Actions.

And here I am forry to find Mr. Warburton going out of his Way, p. 49. to pay a transient Compliment to Hobbs's Sagacity, and for a Tenet of his, which has hitherto been generally esteemed the very Quintessence of his Errors. He faw, Morality was nothing in the Nature of Things; that it was merely owing to Will, Command, Law; meaning positive Will, Command, Law; and having found that there was no God, he fixed it in the Will and Command of the civil Magistrate. In this indeed he was wrong; but in the other, viz. that Will constituted Obligation and Morality, he was right and faw farther than other People, (according to Mr. Warburton.) Though it is too plain, that the first Error was too much the Occasion of the other.

However he does not dwell upon this; but goes on to fomething more material: Which is, to answer an Objection against his own Notion, and in Favour of the Stratonicean. It may be said, that, "as there is an allowed Fitness and "Unfitness in Actions discoverable by the estimates and Unfitness implies Benefit and Damage to the Actor and others—this will be fufficient to make Morality in the Stratonic "World,"—

"World."—To this he replies; that in that World whatever advanced human Happiness would be only a natural Good, and Virtue as merely so as Food and Covering.—Natural, in Contradistinction to moral, or such a Good as one would be obliged

to feek or promote.

However strange a Manner of using Words here may feem to be, Virtue in the Stratonic World is only A natural Good, natural in Opposition to moral, or such a Good as one would be obliged to feek or promote; yet a Distinction is hinted here of natural and moral Good, which I could wish more generally obtained in Etbical Language, for the Sake of Clearness and avoiding ambiguous Words and Phrases. Natural Good is Good, (Benefit, Advantage, Happiness) coming and produced naturally, without any Agency of the Being that has it, and in the ordinary Course of Things: Moral Good is Good (Benefit, Advantage, Happiness,) produced by moral Means, i. e. by Free-Agency. And morally good Agency, and morally good Action will be fuch Agency and fuch Action, as tends to produce Good; i. e. Benefit, Advantage, Happiness.

If then in the Stratonic World there can be fuch Things as Agency and Action with any Propriety fo called, Virtue in that World will be no more natural Good than in any other, but as effentially distinguished from it as in any

other.

But Mr. Warburton's Fallacy feems to lye here. Virtue cannot be moral Good in the Stratonic

tonic World, because in that World there can be no Morality; the Reason of which is, because that World does not acknowledge a fuperior Being and Will. But, furely, this must be merely begging the Question, and not so much as the Shadow of an Answer to the Objection. If in the Stratonic World there may be a Notion of Fitness and Unfitness in Actions, and fuch Fitness and Unfitness implies Benefit and Damage to the Actors (neither of which he denies; though he should have denied one at least, if not both); the Inference is, the Apprehension of this Fitness and Unfitness, implying Benefit and Damage, will be an Obligation to act in such and such a Manner; meaning by it (nothing else can be meant) that this will be a Motive, which in Reason should have fome Influence to fuch and fuch Action .-Now does Mr. Warburton deny this? No; but he fays, Virtue thus influenced is only natural Good, as merely fo as Food and Covering .- Befides the Absurdity of this in itself; what is such an Answer to the Purpose? It is said; that in the Stratonic World, the Prospect of Benefit and Damage will fway Free-Agents (if fuch there are or can be) to a particular Behaviour: The Antwer is; Behaviour fo influenced will be only natural Good. This is plainly no Anfwer at all to the Question: Whether a Stratonicean may not be influenced to a particular Manner of acting by the Prospect of Benefit and Damage? May not this be a reasonable Motive to Action with fuch a one? -- Well; T 2 if if it be, fuch Action will be only natural Good, fays Mr. Warburton; and natural in contradistinction to moral, or such a Good as one would be obliged to feek. The Reason for this: For, says he, till it be made appear, that Man bath received his Being from the Will of another, and fo, depending on that other, is accountable to him for it, be can be under no Obligation to prefer Good to Evil, or even Life to Death. I think, every one will fee, that this is merely flicking to his old Position, that Will constitutes Obligation, and afferting it over and over, without End. But Affertion is no Argument.

The Question berg is: Whether the Prospect of Good and Evil may not influence to Action, and reasonably so? He answers; such a Profpect cannot oblige. For till it be made appear, that Men are derived Beings and accountable to him from whom they derive, they can be under no Obligation. Is this any more than faying, it cannot oblige, because it cannot? But I ask again; may it not influence to Action, and reasonably so? To say, it cannot, is to confound the Ideas of Life and Death, of, Good and Evil, and to fay there is no Dictinction between them.

He goes on;

From the Nature of any Action Morality cannot arise, nor from it's Effects. Not from the first, because being only reasonable or unreasonable, nothing follows, but a Fitness in doing one and an Absurdity in doing the other. - One would think this was enough to constitute an Obligation on every Being that was capable of observing that Fitne/s Fitness and that Absurdity: And every such Being must be immediately self-condemned, that does not in his Action submit to the one and avoid the other: And this Self-condemnation must be brought yet, if possible, more home to him, and greatly increased, when by such unreasonable Behaviour he rejects Happiness and

intails actual Mifery upon himself.

But these are Effects; and that is the other Member of the Author's Division: And he fays-not from the Effects; because did the productive Good or Evil make the Action moral, Brutes, from whose Actions proceed both one and other, would have Morality. If Brutes were intelligent Beings, real Agents, and, fo, capable of Action properly fo called, i. e. Action proceeding from Understanding and Choice, they would be capable of Morality, as well as Men or Angels. But to us they appear to have neither Intelligence nor Freedom: Therefore are no Agents, and cannot act. Consequently, to talk of their Actions, is to use Language with great Latitude and very unphilosophically. And, though indeed it is common enough, that Commonness has proceeded from the Penury of Words, and has not been unattended with some bad Effects, both in the philosophic and in the moral World. As for Mr. Warburton, he was certainly under no Strait, no Difficulty here; I mean under no Necessity of talking of the Actions of Brutes; but to ground a Consequence upon this improper Use of the Word, is surprising enough. And I would farther say, that Evil, that makes an Action in any Being moral. Since an Action may be morally good in any Degree, though the Good intended by it does not follow; (which may be, and often is the Cafe;) and another may be morally Evil in any Degree, though the intended Evil is prevented, (and this too may be, and often is, the Cafe). But those who make the Objection now under Consideration will say, that no Action can come under a moral View, where neither Good nor Evil, neither Happiness nor Misery are intended.

Here comes in another Objection; p. 50. to which Mr. Warburton returns a double Answer. As I do not understand the proper Force of the Objection, I should have passed both it and the Answers intirely over; only under the second Head, there is an Observation, by the Bye, as it is expressed, addressed to the Theist, which is of too much Importance upon many Accounts to

be overlooked.

Having afferted, that an uniform perfect whole, is the plain Image and Impression of one intelligent, self-existent Mind, he then adds; And even in such Case (to observe it—to the Theist, who founds Morality in the natural, essential Difference of Things) it will be found, that Will precedes Obligation. Now, whether what is called eternal Verities, be dependent on the Will of God or no—yet all Parties hold this; that the Happiness and Perfection of the Universe, consequent to the acting conformably to those eternal Verities, is dependent thereon.—The former Assertion

tion is obscure; but there is no Occasion to flay to elucidate it: The latter is furely wrong, and what, no Party that founds Morality in the Difference of Things will or can allow him. They do not hold, neither is it a Consequence from their Opinion, that the Happiness and Perfection of the Universe, consequent to the acting conformably to those eternal Verities, is at all dependent upon Will. This is fo far from being their Opinion, or a Consequence of it, that it is directly contrary to it. They allow, that the intellectual Universe, as the material, had a Cause, and is dependent upon the Pleasure of that Cause for it's Continuance; and more, that it is the Pleasure of this Cause, that it should conform in it's Actions to the eternal Verities: But then they hold likewise, that this is not any arbitrary Pleasure (which, for any Reason to the contrary, might have been the reverse of what it is) but rational Will; i. e. Will founded in Reason, an antecedent Reason taken from the Nature of those eternal Verities: And they hold too, that the intellectual Universe acting agreeably to the eternal Verities, must, cannot but, be immediately and necessarily happy. Such good Confequence of fuch good Action they hold to be as immediate, as necessary, as the Effect of any Cause whatever; and therefore is not dependent upon Will: And he quite mistakes them and their Notions, when he fays, that they all hold the Happiness and Perfection, consequent upon the acting conformably to the eternal Verities, is dependent upon Will: So far from holdholding this, they hold just the contrary: Those, I mean, who found Morality in the effential Differences of Things. They fay, Happiness and Perfection are the Consequences of virtuous Action: What? meaning the arbitrary Confequences? Consequences owing to Will and Pleasure? This, sure, would be saying, they are only Confequences of Will, and in no real Sense at all Consequences of Action. But they hold, that they are Consequences of Action, properly so; and as properly as any Effect can be the Consequence of it's Cause. He proceeds *;

Now this Tendency, (the Tendency of acting conformably to the eternal Verities to produce Happiness and Perfection) being what occasions the Obligation in God himself to observe these Relations, (the eternal Verities) and Will constituting that Tendency, it follows, that Will is prior to all Obligation. Where Mr. Warburton (so far as I can understand him) afferts two Things to prove that Will is prior to all Obligation. One is, that the Tendency, viz. of acting conformably to the eternal Verities to produce Happiness and Perfection, occasions an Obligation in God himself to observe them; and the other is, that it is Will, which constitutes that Tendency. And if these are true, it must necessarily follow, that Will is prior to all Obligation, univerfally; not only the Obligation of derived, dependent Beings, but of God himself; and that Word, ALL, is to be taken in the largest, i.e. the truest and properest Sense. For if it is that

Tendency, that occasions the Obligation in God himself,—and it is Will, that constitutes that Tendency; it is plain, that Will is prior to even the Divine Obligation. And if it is prior to this, no Body will dispute it's being prior to the Obligation of other Beings; and so prior to Obligation, as to constitute it: For this is the only Sense in which the Word can be used with any Force or Propriety here. Thus then, Will is the Cause, the Reason of Obligation in God himself.

And from hence it follows, (this Will being God's Will) that the Obliger and the Obliged are one and the same Person. But Mr. Warburton knows, this is the highest of Absurdities in the Matter of Obligation; and that where the Obliger and the Obliged are one and the same Person, there all Obligation is void of Course, or rather no Obligation would be begun. And thus, he himself runs into that very Absurdity, which he charges the Stratonicean withal, when he talks of Actions being moral or obligatory: And one may reason with him, as he does with the Stratonicean: What Being can be find whereon to found this Obligation? Will he fay, Will? That is the very Absurdity complained of; because Will is only an Attribute of the Person obliged .- To make this the Obliger, is to make a Person (God) oblige himself; which is the bigbest of Absurdities in the Matter of Obligation.

The Occasion of his falling into this Inconfistency is, (the Mistake above taken Notice of) his

his making the Tendency of acting conformably to Reason to produce Happiness and Persection. a merely arbitrary Thing, intirely dependent upon Will. Which is just the same Absurdity, as it would be in a Mathematician, after having drawn a Triangle, to say the Properties of that Triangle are dependent upon Will, because the making that Triangle was fo. Whereas the plain Truth is, that when a Triangle is made, fuch and fuch Properties will necessarily and immediately arise, and will subsist, in spite of all Will whatfoever, fo long as the Triangle itself exists. This exactly represents the Case of all intellectual Beings whatever with Relation to moral Conduct. These Beings may exist differently; fome of them arbitrarily; fome (ONE) necessarily. But let them exist in what Manner they will, while they do exist, Happiness and Perfection must necessarily arise from a certain Method of Conduct; and, on the other hand, you cannot separate, even in Idea, Mifery and Imperfection, from a contrary Behaviour. The not observing this, and perhaps too warm a Pursuit of his own Notion, (the one probably the Occasion of the other,) betrayed the Author into that extreme Absurdity, that Will is prior to all Obligation whatever: And yet at the very fame Time that he fays this, he had the Obligation of God to moral Action before him, and had his Eye too, particularly, upon it. Yet again, he seems to have received a fudden Check here from his own Reflections, and to have had fome Apprehension of

the Unreasonableness of such a Conclusion, "That Will is prior to all Obligation, not excepting even that of the supreme Being him"felf;" fince in the very next Sentence he afferts what is wholly inconsistent with it: For

thus he goes on;

And as it is of the Nature of the independent furft Cause to be obliged only by his own Wisdom, so it seems to be of dependent intelligent Beings to be obliged only by the Will of the surft Cause. This is plainly finding a different Ground from Will for some moral Obligation: And then it follows, that Will is not prior to all Obligation; which yet he had afferted in the preceding Sentence; and by all Obligation must mean the Obligation of all Beings whatever, whether dependent or independent. And yet in this latter Affertion he as plainly contradicts again all that he has hitherto been labouring so hard, viz. To prove that Obligation is founded in Will, and even opposes his own very Manner of Arguing.

Obligation, said he, necessarily implies an Obliger: The Obliger must be different from, and not one and the same with, the Obliged:— where the Obliger and Obliged are one and the same Person, all Obligation must be void of course, or rather no Obligation would be begun.—And upon the Force of this Reasoning he asks the Stratonicean; What Being he can find whereon to found his Obligation? And, supposing that he will answer, right Reason; he goes on thus: That is the very Absurdity we complain of; because Reason is only an Attribute of the Person oblig-

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obliged, his Affistant, to judge of his Obligations, if he have any from any other Being .- Now, (to pass over too all that he favs under the next Head, to prove that Obligation supposes a Law) is not all this flatly contrary to, and contradicted by, what he afferts here, that God may be and is obliged by bis own Wisdom? For here Obligation is without an Obliger; or the Obliger and the Obliged are one and the same Person. And, whereas before nothing but a Being, and a separate Being, could oblige; now, a Quality, a Property, an Attribute will oblige, and oblige the same Being of whom it is a Quality, Property or Attribute. And Mr. Warburton will not bring himself off by faying, that he was there only confidering the Obligation of Men to moral Action; or, at the most, of finite intelligent Beings; because, he argues against Obligation in itself considered; therefore against all Obligation, or against the Obligation of all Beings whatever: For, à quatenus ad omne valet confequentia. If Reason cannot oblige, as he afferts, one or more intelligent Beings; it cannot be the true Ground of Obligation to any. And, on the contrary, if it obliges one, it must oblige all. The supreme Being is obliged by his own Wisdom, i. e. by his own Reason. Are not finite intelligent Beings then obliged by their Reason? Mr. Warburton must say, No. But then his Reason for this will not be, that their Reason is derived and finite; (to which the Anfwer would be, that it is the best they have;)

but, according to his Manner of arguing hitherto, Obligation implies an Obliger.

And now, at last, upon another Account;

which follows in the next Words:

For we cannot so much as conceive an intelligent first Cause, whether eternal Verities are dependent or independent of him, without conceiving at the same Time a Will, that enjoins all his intelligent Creatures to act in Conformity to those Truths. This is a Reason, not of the first of the two Affertions in the preceding Sentence, viz. That it is of the Nature of the independent first Cause to be obliged only by his own Wisdom; (this Affertion stands naked and intirely unsupported;) but of the latter, viz. that it feems to be of the Nature of all intelligent dependent Beings, to be obliged ONLY by the Will of the first Cause. Now, supposing it be allowed, (and none but Atheists will refuse to allow it;) that we cannot so much as conceive an intelligent first Cause, -without conceiving at the same Time a Will that injoins, &c. it will not follow, that intelligent finite Beings can be obliged ONLY by the Will of the first Cause. The Will of the first Cause may be, and undoubtedly is, an Obligation, whenever known. But it is not therefore the only Obligation. For may there not be several Obligations? The Will of God is one; allowed to be fo by all but Atheists. How does it follow, that (or is this the least Shadow of a Reason why) there are no more? And, particularly, why may not the Wisdom (or the Reafon) of dependent, intelligent Beings, oblige them.

them, agreeably to their Natures, as the Wildom (the Reason) of the first Cause obliges him, agreeably to his Nature? The Nature of both is to be intelligent, rational: If Wisdom (Reason) obliges one, it must as really oblige the other. I think, he will not fay, that Derivation, Finiteness, Dependence, can make any Difference bere. For furely the best Use should be made of Reason, such as and whatever it is. If he can give a Reason, why a finite, intelligent, derived Being is not obliged to be under the Conduct of his Judgment, formed upon, and guided by, the Differences of Things, while yet the independent first Cause is obliged by bis Judgment, his Reason or Wisdom; this will be doing femething, greatly to the Purpose. But then this Reason must not be, " that a derived " Being is obliged by the Will of him from " whom he derives:" Because this may be true, and the other likewife; and Theifts may, and do, confiftently, acknowledge the Obligation of Will, and the Obligation of Reason too.

But Mr. Warburton, in order to set his Point in the clearest Light, will proceed to consider, two or three other Objections against Morality's

being founded in Will.

1. Obj. The first is; "That as every Crea"ture necessarily pursues Happiness; it is that
"which obliges to moral Observance, and not
the Will of God. Because it is to procure

"Happiness that we obey the Will of God."
To this the Answer is: That when it is said,

Morality is founded on Will, it is not meant, that every

every Will obliges, but that nothing but Will can: --- And by Will here is meant Will fo and fo circumstanced. Thus; it must be the Will, not of an Equal, much less an Inferior, but of a Superior, and a Superior Jeeking our Good. And then he fays; And why it is not as much Will that obliges, when it is the Will of a Superior feeking our Good, as when it is the Will of a Superior simply, he is yet to learn. To which it may be replied; that it is not Will fimply that obliges in either Case: No, nor (as he himself now allows) in any Case. For in all Cases the Obligation arises from Will fo and so circumstanced. And if, after these Concessions, the last more especially, he had said; " And why " it is not as much Will that obliges, when it " is the Will of a Superior, and of a Superior " feeking our Good, as when it is Will fimply," every one, I imagine, would have been prefently fenfible of an Inconfiftency. Will obliges and does not oblige. - But even as he himself has put it, there is an evident Inaccuracy. For though Will should as really oblige in the one Case as in the other, yet furely it is, in the former Case, Will one Degree farther removed from mere Will, than in the latter: Since in the former there is one more Circumstance added to the Will, than in the latter. In this it is the Will of a Superior; in the other, the Will of a Superior feeking our Good: In this other therefore Will is farther removed from Simplicity, or mere Will. And when it is the Will of a Superior feeking our Good that obliges, it

is less Will that obliges than when it is the Will of a Superior only; therefore not fo much Will. And it is not Will that obliges, if it must be the Will of a Superior, and of a Superior feeking our Good; or, if it is any Thing else but Will fimply. And if fuch Will obliges, then mere Will univerfally, without any Regard to Inferiority, Equality or Superiority. But he himfelf denies, that mere Will can oblige; and yet, though it must be Will so and so circumflanced, he afferts, that nothing but Will can. This furely has too much the Appearance of a Contradiction: Since what is it but to fay, " that these Circumstances are necessary, and at " the fame Time not necessary to constitute " Obligation; that Will must be so and so cir-" cumstanced to make Obligation, and yet need " not; for after all, nothing but Will can oblige." -I think, he should have expressed it; nothing without Will can oblige. Thus, one may fuppose a Superior in any Degree, and such a one feeking our Good too in any Degree, without the Notion of Obligation: But, when the Will, or Pleasure, of such a Being signified to us, is added, then Obligation immediately commences. -Had he had faid this, there had been no Inconfistency; but then too it had not been to the Purpose, and he had answered and opposed no Body.

But, fays he, To fay then (on Supposition of the Qualifications he mentions) that it is Happiness and not Will that makes the Obligation, feems to me like saying in Mechanicks, that when a Weight

a Weight is raised by an Engine, the Wheels and Pullies are not the Cause, but that universal Assection of Matter called Attraction. This Similitude perhaps he will recal, when he reconsiders, that there is no Likeness, but, on the contrary, the greatest Dissimilitude; and that he himself is mistaken in the very Case he puts. For surely he must be a forry Mechanic indeed, that cannot see, that Attraction is so far from being the Cause of an Engine with it's Wheels and Pullies raising a Weight, that it is on the contrary, the only Reason why any Force at all need be applied. And if the Similitude be taken away, what of Argument might be included,

will of Course go along with it.

But if it be still farther urged, that one can be no more called the Obliger than the other; because though Happiness could not oblige without Will; on the other Hand, Will could not oblige without Happiness: This, he replies, is a Mistake; and gives this Reason: Will could not indeed oblige to Unhappiness: But it would oblige to what should produce neither the one nor the other, though all Confideration of the Consequence of obeying or difobeying were away, p. 52. Now, besides that this cannot be true; fince in fuch a Case Men would want every Motive that could, be fupposed to influence to Action; it is inconsistent with what was just before granted, viz. that it is not Will fimply that obliges, but Will fo and fo circumstanced, i. e. the Will of a Superior seeking our Good: And again, it is inconfiftent with itfelf:

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felf; nor can he affign any Reason, "why Will " can oblige to a Thing purely indifferent and "without proposing any Reward to Obedience," which will not equally prove, " that it may " oblige to Unhappiness." Nay, it is in a Manner the very fame Thing. Since to be obliged to act without any Prospect of the least Good in any Respect, must be Unhappiness enough, and a great deal too much. But the best of it is, it is a Sort of Unhappiness that is impossible, and no reasonable Being can be subact to it bowells as

Obj. 2d. The next Objection is; " That if? " the Will of God is determined by the eternal " Relations of Things, they are properly those " Relations (as Dr. Clark would have it) that " oblige, and not the Will of God." Which is illustrated by a familiar Instance in Physics; " If A impel B, and B, C, and C, D; it is A, " not C, that properly impels D." It should be observed, that this is only a Similitude, and brought, as Similitudes should be, not to prove, but merely to illustrate; to cast some Light upon a Thing and help Conception. Had he attended to this, he would not have had the Sufpicion he speaks of, and upon which he grounds his Answer intirely. He suspects the Objection confounds natural Cause and Effect, with moral Agent and Patient. The Objection itself, certainly, does no fuch Thing: And if the Similitude is not liked, it may be given up, without any Detriment. What Dr. Clark and his **Followers**

Followers fay, is this: "That as the divine In-" tellect judges of, is guided and determined by "the eternal Relations of Things, and God " himself is, from the Perfection of his Na-" ture, invariably determined to will and act " agreeably to those Relations: So it is the pro-" per Bufiness of all finite intelligent Beings to inquire into those Relations; and, as their " Understandings discern and judge of them, it " is their Obligation (most naturally and ori-" ginally fo) to will and act agreeably to them." Mr. Warburton himself has allowed, that from hence arises an Obligation upon God himself: Must he not, confistently, allow the same with respect to finite intelligent Beings? What should make a Difference? Finiteness cannot; because it is not owing merely to the Infiniteness of the divine Being, that he is obliged to conform his Will and Actions to the effential Differences and Relations of Things: But because he is an intellectual and proper Agent. Therefore whereever there is Intelligence and Agency, there must be the same Obligation. Finite, derived, intelligent Beings are to inquire, in the best Manner they can, into the Relations of Things, and ought to conform to them in their Conduct to the Extent of their Power. And this is to be morally good, not only because it is the Will of God they should be so; but for the same Reason as he himself is so. -- As there is nothing in the Author's Answer accommodated to this Sense of the Objection, (which yet is the only rollowers

only true Sense of it) I shall pass it over; and go on to the next and last, p. 53.

Obj. 3d. " It is faid, that not the Will of " God obliges, but the Difference of Things; " because if it be asked, why we should obey "God's Will, the only Reply is, that it is fit " we should do so. But Fitness arises from the " effential Difference of Things. Therefore, " &c." It may be owned, this has fomething of the Air of a Quibble, and might very well have passed without Notice, after what has been already faid. But if Mr. Warburton would produce it, I cannot think but he should have returned a better Answer than what he has done.

Can any Thing, fays he, be more pleasant, than to make that very Consciousness that Will, and Will only, can oblige, an Argument that Will cannot oblige? For this Fitness is just that very Consciousness, and nothing else. Fitness, in the Objection, and in the Language of every one that uses it in Morals, expresses something abfolute and real: A Correspondency between Actions and Things, as real as between Things and Things. To fay then, that this Fitness is Consciousness, is no better than to resolve all the Agreements and Differences of Things into Consciousness. But, as he knows very well, there must be such Differences and Agreements in Things themselves, before we can know any Thing of them: So there must be a Correfpondence between the Will of God and our Obedience to it, before we can be conscious of fuch

fuch Correspondence or the Obligation arising from it. And this Correspondence is as real in the Nature of Things, as the Agreement between the Angles of a Triangle with two right ones.—But in what follows he may perhaps feem to mend his Answer. Farther, when we fay it is fit God should be obeyed, we do not mean, it is fit an Inferior in Power or Wisdom should obey his Superior .- But it is fit a Creature should obey his Creator: Because the first has only a natural Fitness, the latter a moral. p. 54. He is very right in faying, that by the Expression, it is fit to obey God, is not meant, merely, it is fit an Inferior in Power or Wisdom should obey a Superior; but is wrong in faying, here is only a natural Fitness, (distinguishing between a natural and moral Fitness): For there is no Fitness between Obedience and mere Superiority of Power or Wisdom. It must be known, how such Power and Wisdom will be directed with Respect to the Inferior, before it can be said at all, that fuch a one's Obedience is fit. And I am utterly at a Loss to account for that Distinction of natural and moral Fitness, upon this Occasion: Since if I know what he means by moral Fitness, wherever there is natural Fitness of Action, there must be a moral one. At least however, he cannot but know, this is the Sentiment of those who make the Objection; that a moral Fitness immediately arises from a natural one. And for this Reason, they will by no Means allow him, that there is any natural North S

tural Fitness between one Being's acting and the merely Superior Power and Wisdom of anothet: Nor will they, or any one elfe, be able to understand his Language, when he says, it is naturally fit an Inferior should obey a Superior, and diffinguishes such natural Fitness from moral, denying it to be morally fit; when yet, Obedience to a Superior is acting agreeably to the Will of a Superior, and fuch Action must be moral; fince according to himself, Will constitutes Obligation, i.e. Morality, And still farther (which is yet more abundantly furprifing) he supports this Distinction of natural and moral Fitness, with a Reason, which excludes the Will of a Superior, even in the Case of an Inferior's obeying him. For thus he goes on: For in the first Case, i. e. when it is said, an Inferior in Power or Wifdom should obey his Superior, there being no Proof that our Perception of thefe effential Differences was intentionally given; Will, from whence comes Obligation, is not concerned; therefore no Morality in this Fitness. On the contrary; I fay, the very Caje supposes a Command given to be obeyed; which is a Will intentionally manifested; therefore the Fitness to obey a Superior must be moral (upon his own Notion of Morality) if any Thing can be fo. The very Case, as he himself puts it, supposes a Will; and therefore the Fitnel's must be moral. - But in the latter Cafe, as he goes on, viz. the Fitness of a Creature's obeying bis Greator, the Perception of thefe effential Diffethem rences

rences is supposed to be intentionally given: Will is therefore concerned; is still prior to Obligation, and makes this Fitness moral. It is allowed, that here the Perception of the effential Differences was intentionally given: What follows? Therefore the Fitness of complying with them in Action is moral. Granted: But then does it follow, that, if this is moral, the other is not? It is morally fit a Creature should obey his Creator; may it not be merally fit too, that an Inferior should obey his Superior, without particularly including the Relations of Creator and Creature: Will not Benefactor and Beneficiary be a Ground of moral Fitness, as well as the other? And, above all, what is the Ground of moral Fitness in the Actions of God? Is it not the Conformity of them to his Perception of the Nature and Reason of Things? He has no Superior to command him, and no Will of a Superior to conform his Actions to. His Perception too could not be intentionally given: Nor given in any Sense: Yet his Actions are moral, and perfectly fo. There is therefore nothing else to account for the Morality of them, but their Conformity to the Nature and Reason of Things. Must not one think then, that the same Thing will constitute the Morality of other intelligent Beings? Merely their being finite and derived can make no Difference here. They are to judge of the Differences of Things as well as they can: And, to act agreeably to their finite Apprehensions of them will make U4 them rences

them morally good Beings; as, and in the fame Sense as, the Supreme, underived intelligent Being is morally good by conforming his Actions to his perfect and all-comprehending View of the Nature and Reason of Things.

It is really not a little furprising to see Mr. Warburton, even when he is endeavouring to answer his Opponents, so often doing it upon the Supposition, that Will is the Ground of moral Obligation. This is the very Thing his Opponents object to; yet in his Answers, and by way of Answer, he often afferts the same Thing. Thus here; speaking to the first Case, and endeavouring to shew there is no Morality in it, he concludes thus; Will, from whence comes Obligation, is not concerned; therefore no Morality in this Fitness. Is it not here taken for granted, that Obligation comes from Will? And yet this is the very Point in question.

Laftly; under this Objection he complains of the Poverty of Language; and thinks it is owing intirely to that, that we make no more Distinction between Fitnesses; but equally say, it is fit a Creature Should obey his Creator; and it is fit an Inferior should obey his Superior; and so in a thousand other more particular Instances, it is fit this or that or the other should be done; and even fay, it is fit an underived and independent Being should (as he always and invariably will) conform his Actions to the effential and unalterable Nature of Things. Whereas, says he, there is an infinite Difference in thefe OCIVE

these Fitnesses. Difference in the Fitnesses themselves there is none, any more than there is in
Truth, judged of by a finite and infinite Mind:
But Difference enough there will be in the Judgments that are made by such Minds. Yet, so
far as the Perceptions of a finite Mind can go,
they will be real; and the moral Fitness of conforming, in Action, to such Perceptions, the
same in Nature and Kind, (though plainly not
in Extent) as that of an underived Being's conforming his Actions to the perfect, all-comprehensive Ideas, which such a one cannot but
have of the essential Differences of Things.

Mr. Warburton having thus gone through the Objections, comes, at last *, to account for it. how it has happened, that this most evident Truth, that Morality is founded in Will, has been long controverted even among Theifts. And he is fo fair as to lay the Fault in a great Measure upon the Defenders of it; who have generally, he fays, thought themselves obliged to deny (in order to support their Cause) the natural, effential Differences of Things, antecedent to a Law; imagining the Morality of Actions would follow this Concession. But, adds he, this is a Mistake, which the rightly distinguishing between Things naturally and morally separable, as has been explained above, will rectify +. I am glad he does, as here, so every where else, allow of eternal Verities, and the effential Differences of Things; which hardly any Theift before him,

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who founded Morality in Will, would ever do. Nay, they have constantly made it the great Objection to their Adversaries, " that by their "Doctrine of eternal Verities, and the effential " unalterable Nature of Things, and the Diffe-" rences between them, according to which the divine Intellect and Conduct are guided, they " have fairly made fomething, nay, innumera-" ble Things, prior in Nature to, and indepen-" dent upon God, who yet created all Things " out of nothing." Mr. Warburton fees farther into this Matter, and is more equitable; yet I cannot think that his Distinction will rectify the Mistake at all. If what has been just now remarked upon it, under the last Objection, and in other Places, be just, the Distinction is of no Significancy in the present Case. But, after giving a Reason why his Distinction has been so much unobserved, (which Reason, I confess, I do not understand;) he proceeds to shew, on the other hand, the Mistake of his and their Adversaries, viz. Those who found Morality in the effential Differences of Things. They too being in the same Prepossession that one inferred the other, when they had clearly demonstrated the natural, effential Difference, never gave themfelves any farther Trouble, but delivered this as the Proof of the moral Difference; though thefe be, in Reality, fays he, as we have feen above, two distinct Things, and independent of one another. The natural, effential Difference is one Thing, Action is another. The former is absoguilbed lutely

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lutely independent of the latter; fince it is prior to, and may fubfift without it. Action neces farily supposes the other; morally good Action is Action conformed to it. Thus he himfelf allows it to be in God; and there is no other possible Rule to be assigned for the Measure of the divine Conduct. And why then it should not be the same Ground of Morality in the Conduct and Action of finite intelligent Beings, as he has never particularly confidered hitherto. I am fully perfuaded he can affign no Reason. And when the Differences of Things are feen and judged of, by a finite intelligent Being, if he does not conform his Conduct thereto, he is immediately morally culpable; if he does, he acts morally well; in the very fame Sense. though in a much lower Degree, as we fay concerning the independent Being, that his Conduct, his Action is morally good, as being conformed to the same effential Difference. And upon this Account it is we fay, that moral Goodness is the same every where; Justice, Beneficence, Veracity, the fame morally good Qualities in all Beings whatever.

Though, to be ingenuous, I cannot but, in passing, observe and acknowledge, that too many of those, who have founded Morality in the Differences of Things, have laid their Foundation too wide; since the same Foundation may (and must) be laid for all Sciences and Arts, and, in a Word, for all Truth whatsoever. It had surely been better to have distinguished

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guished of these Differences, and shewn, more particularly, what those Differences are, which an intelligent Being cannot be morally good, unless he conforms his Actions to. - However. this only in passing. It is not what Mr. Warburton blames these Writers for; but both them and his own Party, for not confidering this natural, essential Difference of Things, as what, says he, it must be confessed by both Parties to be, the Rule which God hath GIVEN his Creatures to bring them to the Knowledge of his Will. Had this been attended to, the Dispute had been at an End.

It must be owned, this is a ready Way of ending the Dispute: But the worst of it is, before one of the Parties can be brought to acknowledge it, it must be prevailed with to renounce it's own Principles. They, (that is, those who maintain the natural, essential Difference of Things, and found Morality there,) cannot, confiftently, own that this is a Rule GIVEN by God.—They fay, it is an eternal Rule in the Nature of Things; not GIVEN, not made by any Being whatever; any more than any other eternal Verities can be faid to be GIVEN, or made. It is the Rule to which the supreme Being las morally perfect, invariably conforms his own Actions, and wills indeed that all his reasonable Creatures should conform theirs; but that, it is a Rule immediately and necessarily obligatory upon all finite, rational Beings, in the fame Manner as he himself must own it to be upon

upon the Supreme: But to fay, it is given, makes it positive, and the Result of Pleasure;

which they can never own, and describing of

However, he feems to think them capable of coming into this Compromise; and hereupon fays, that if they had done it before, they bad employed this Difference, not as the Atheis does, for the Foundation of Morality, but as all true Theists should do, for the Medium to bring us to that only found Foundation, the Will and Command of God .- Not as the Atheist does .-This is invidious; and there was not the least Occasion to bring in an Atheist here. The Atheift may own, the Parts are equal to the whole: but this should not be mentioned to cast a Reflection on that Axiom. So, though a Stratonicean may fay, that the effential Difference is the Foundation of Morality; if it be true, it may furely be in the same Manner employed or applied by any Body: If it be false, Mr. Warburton may shew it: Which he has not yet by any Means done.

However, he would have it otherwise employed, viz. for the Medium to bring us to that only sound Foundation, the Will and Command of God. This may, perhaps, in the Opinion of light, cursory Readers, seem to cast some Shade upon the eternal Rule of right Reason; but, in Reality, it is a very high Commendation of it: Since (except in the Case of a positive Revelation) it is only by this Rule, first seen, judged of and approved, in the Nature of Things, that

noqu

An ANSWER to the. &c.

we can know what the Will of God is, with Relation to the Conduct of finite, derived, intelligent Beings; and we are fure, that he cannot but conform his own Will and Commands to it; i.e. we are fure, it is bis Will and Pleafure they should conform to it, as being, or because it is, effentially, in itself, just and RIGHT and GOOD. A senses has been find to Ille ment Challick Author to Platry and Hillory. In three

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